

# COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL *of the* American  
Association of Collegiate Registrars  
*and* Admissions Officers



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## Mexico City College: an Informal Report\*

MERLE KLING

### I

OF THOSE Americans who are enrolled in schools of higher education outside the territory of the United States, more attend Mexico City College than any other institution in the world.<sup>1</sup> But perhaps the truly remarkable fact about Mexico City College is that it continues to survive. For the College survives without noteworthy endowment, without governmental subsidy, without foundation support (not by choice!), without exorbitant tuition fees, and without extravagant exhibitions of financial solicitude on the part of its, as yet, modest number of alumni. The College, moreover, has survived the administrative ordeal of a large veteran enrollment after World War II, the academic vicissitudes of the Korean War, and the progressive exodus of veterans from the college campus in recent years. It has survived the most severe earthquake (July 28, 1957) in

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\* The data and conclusions of this article were derived from the records and reports of Mexico City College, interviews with students, faculty members, and administrators of the College, and personal impressions gathered by the writer during the Summer Session of 1957.

<sup>1</sup> During the academic year 1955-56, 911 students from the United States were enrolled at Mexico City College; the University of Paris, with 864 American students, ranks second among institutions of higher education abroad in which United States students are registered. Institute of International Education, *Open Doors 1957: A Report on International Exchange*, June 1957, p. 11.

the memory of living Mexicans. (Although the College lacked water and electricity for the day, I recorded only two absences in my class of 23 on the Monday following the earthquake—one student served as a member of a joint Mexican-United States team to assist earthquake victims, and the other student probably suffered from an upset stomach). It has survived the uncertainties of a Mexican road improvement project which delayed College-bound buses for an hour and more. It has survived the social perils of a United States private enterprise on foreign soil. And while perennially subject to international political vagaries beyond its control, the College appears "here to stay."

Mexico City College does not yield easily to taxonomic analysis on the part of professional educators. It cannot be classified as a "foreign" institution for American students. Nor can it be classified as an American college abroad for "foreign" students. Its administrative methods, curriculum, educational objectives, and pedagogical techniques are transplanted from the United States. Its student body overwhelmingly is comprised of young men and women from the United States. But its geographical site is Mexico. And the immediate environment, inevitably, shapes the professional behavior and educational practices of the faculty, the personnel policies of the administrators, and the emergent traditions of the College.

## II

Since the College enjoys neither diplomatic sponsorship nor immunity, an indispensable prerequisite for its stable functioning is the maintenance of amicable relations with the Government and people of Mexico. In this sphere of international relations, the College has been able to demonstrate that its presence does not adversely affect indigenous interests and, in fact, contributes tangibly to the achievement of economic and social objectives projected and endorsed by leading Mexicans.

Economically, the College directly and substantially facilitates the entry of dollar exchange into Mexico. The foreign capital which enters Mexico via this route, moreover, represents the least painful and most constructive method yet devised for plugging a dollar gap. The dollars brought by United States students into Mexico create neither the subtle resentments of charity nor the financial obligations of loans. They are expended for goods and services in Mexico and proliferate into widely diffused benefits for the Mexican economy.

Tuition payments provide salaries for Mexican as well as North American faculty members and employees—all of whom, in turn, make purchases in Mexico. Expenditures of students and their families and friends for food, housing, clothing, gifts, and domestic travel, enlarge the market for local products and services. At the same time, this flow of foreign capital competes neither currently nor potentially with Mexican investments. It carries with it none of the economic demands or political complications of capital investment in land, raw materials, or mineral resources. Thus its role cannot become a subject of conflict in the political arena or an object of the kind of nationalistic attack so popular in underdeveloped areas.

Socially, the College provides Mexico with a relatively large and sympathetic "foreign constituency." Although adherence to no common dogma characterizes the faculty, the instructional staff virtually by its presence and composition (over half of the faculty are of Mexican and European national origins) personifies and symbolizes the democratic values of cultural diversity and tolerance. Formal indoctrination in the creed of brotherhood or the appreciation of national differences—a dubious tactic under any circumstances—patently becomes superfluous in a milieu of Mexican, European, and North American faculty members. What is more, students live in attractive homes with Mexican families (the College has no dormitories), belong to a student body which is selected without racial, religious, or national discrimination (besides Mexican and United States nationals, 69 students representing 37 countries were in residence during the Summer of 1957), and surmount the linguistic barrier with the study of Spanish. The environmental conditions are favorable for the development of positive, though not uncritical, attitudes toward Mexican accomplishments and patterns of behavior. (It may be noted, parenthetically, that these attitudes apparently emerge without the crusading zeal and the emotional fervor which frequently accompany their acquisition in North America. A girl in my class matter-of-factly informed me that her aunts in California had warned her about Mexicans, and that she found the evaluations of her aunts without support in her own experiences and therefore had discarded them; but she remained on the best of terms with her relatives and was not motivated "to convert" them.)

Politically, the College helps to expand the size of the literate and sophisticated foreign audience to which the Mexican Government unavoidably must address itself. United States businessmen and the

United States Government are the most significant external variables in Mexican political life. The presence in the United States of an increasing number of graduates of Mexico City College, trained in the language, history, culture, and traditions of Mexico, of course does not provide the Mexican Government with assurance that its appeals and proposals always will elicit favorable responses in North America. But the existence of such a group in the United States enormously simplifies the problem of communication. The "message" of the Mexican Government to this group may not invariably be greeted with enthusiastic approval; but the "message" will "get through," and it will "be received."

### III

To the North American student who wishes to study abroad, the College offers certain practical advantages. The prevailing exchange rate between the peso and the dollar means that both tuition and living expenses are relatively low. Secondly, the College attempts to provide a standard, familiar liberal arts curriculum. As a consequence, the student finds himself in a foreign country but not in a strange academic world. Third, the College is oriented largely in the direction of undergraduate instruction. Not infrequently the American scholar abroad is a graduate student from a large university with an exceptional scholastic record, financially supported by a fellowship, foundation grant, or government subsidy. The student body of Mexico City College, on the other hand, in its heterogeneous intellectual composition, tends to resemble the student body of a small American college.

Finally, in its approach to the linguistic problem and the student, the College, tacitly if not formally, subscribes to the admonition directed to unmarried girls in search of husbands by the musical comedy, *Guys and Dolls*: "Slowly introduce him to the finer things of life." The capacity to appreciate another culture is one of "the finer things of life." Accordingly, the College does not ruthlessly cast the tender North American, with his carefully nurtured prejudices and psychological blocks against the study of foreign languages, into a Spanish lake, to sink or swim. On the contrary, most classes are conducted in English. But almost all students who are not bilingual study Spanish, and the instruction is idiomatic and functional. Artificial stimulation and didactic "pep talks," in an effort to induce motivation for the mastery of a foreign language, are unnecessary;

daily, the student finds that his linguistic growth enhances his ability to perceive, integrate, and control his Mexican environment.

#### IV

The rather brief administrative history of Mexico City College lends itself to summary treatment. Initially it was founded as a junior college in June, 1940, by Henry L. Cain, Superintendent of the American School Foundation in Mexico, and Paul V. Murray, Principal of the High School Department of the same Foundation. In 1946, the school became a four-year college conferring the A.B. degree, and also added a small graduate department granting the A.M. degree in a few fields of special interest. Dr. Cain served as President of the College until 1953, when he became President Emeritus. He was succeeded as President by Dr. Murray.

Since 1950, the College has been chartered under the laws of Mexico as a nonprofit corporation (*Asociación Civil*). In September, 1956, a Board of Directors, with the following membership, was established: Dr. Cain; Dr. Murray; Licenciado Germán Fernández del Castillo, legal counsel of the College; Dr. Pablo Martínez del Río, Director, *Escuela Nacional de Antropología e Historia*, a noted Mexican scholar; Fraime B. Rhuberry, General Manager of the Ford Motor Company in Mexico City; and William B. Richardson, retired Executive Vice-President of the National City Bank of New York and former Manager of the Bank's branch in Mexico. In addition, a 10-member Honorary Board of Advisers, composed largely of professors in North American colleges and universities, has been appointed. Among the members of the Board of Advisers are Dr. John U. Nef, Chairman, Committee on Social Thought, University of Chicago, and Elias T. Arnesen, Chairman, Division of Humanities, San Francisco State College. Dr. Nef has been a potent influence on the educational orientation of the College, and Dr. Arnesen has taught during a summer quarter at the College.

An Administrative Council, made up of deans and the President of the College, formally determines academic policy. But available space makes it possible to identify only three key administrators who shoulder the chief operating responsibility for the College at the present time: President Murray, Vice-President and Dean of Faculty John V. Elmendorf, and Dean of Admissions and Registrar Elizabeth Thomas de López. Although all administrators, including the President, are required to teach at least one class, the chief



obligation of these officials clearly is not to the classroom. President Murray (who was awarded an LL.D. by his alma mater, St. Ambrose College, and an M.A. by Catholic University of America), in the jargon of the garment trade, conforms to the model of the "outside" man. Articulate and energetic, he represents the College in its relations with the Mexican community and other educational institutions in Mexico and the United States. He assumes primary responsibility for maintaining the financial solvency of the College and takes justifiable pride in his ability to meet complex payrolls—despite the popular stereotype of the teacher! He has lived in Mexico for more than two decades, and he and his wife have published widely-adopted textbooks for language instruction. He is the official spokesman for the College.

Dean Elmendorf, who holds a Ph.D. from the University of North Carolina, discharges the duties of the "inside" man. Problems of faculty administration and personnel, and a host of internal problems ranging from student disciplinary cases to protocol procedures for approaching Mexican officials, tend to be deposited on his desk. (His manner of restrained intensity suggests the image of the contemporary business executive. But his background as professor of Linguistics and Deputy Commissioner of the European Office of the American Friends Service Committee after World War II, plus his spontaneous enthusiasm for the programmatic theme of William Whyte's *The Organization Man*, blur the image). Mrs. López (M.A., St. Louis University), as the first full-time staff member, had her choice of academic titles when the four-year College was founded and, with evident foresight, selected the post of Registrar. As she anticipated, problems of student selection, admission, and guidance have been major ones for the College. Her commitment, both professionally and avocationally, is a total one: she takes the same uninhibited satisfaction in the growth of the institution's prestige that a mother takes in the accomplishments of a child. By temperament and office, she plays an integrating and unifying role in the administrative life of the College.

Until March, 1954, the physical plant of the College was scattered among a half dozen buildings in the Colonia Roma section of Mexico City. Having acquired grounds and buildings at Kilometer 16 of the Mexico-Toluca Highway, the continuation of the Paseo de la Reforma, the College then moved to its present site, which permits a unified physical plant. The campus now includes about



twenty acres of land in a scenic setting. Many of the buildings have been decorated with murals by art students of the College. The style and motif of the art work are appropriate to the locale and reveal a commendable desire to adapt techniques for which Mexican artists are famous. The grounds of the campus are sufficiently extensive to allow for expansion, and plans have been drawn up for the construction of additional buildings.

## V

The requirements for admission to Mexico City College cannot be regarded as formidable. To enter courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, prospective students must present a transcript indicating graduation from high school or an official record stating that the high school level G.E.D. tests have been passed. Preparatory studies of students from outside the United States are evaluated by examination. Students over 21 years of age may enter as special students with the permission of a Committee on Admissions; if they give evidence of ability to perform college work, they are permitted to work towards a degree. The usual letters of recommendation are required. Transfer credits from approved colleges and universities are accepted, but advanced standing is contingent upon the quality of work done at Mexico City College.

Enrollment statistics reveal considerable fluctuations in the size of the student population between one period and another, and between summer quarters (usually high) and spring quarters (relatively low). Like comparable statistics at other institutions, enrollment figures at Mexico City College show the effects of the entry and departure of veterans and the low birth rates of the depression era; similarly, unless artificially restricted, enrollment statistics in the future should reflect the high birth rate of the period since World War II. The following table indicates the total enrollment at Mexico City College by quarters, since its inception as a four-year college:

Spring	1946	75	Spring	1948	439
Summer	1946	106	Summer	1948	643
Fall	1946	160	Fall	1948	548
Winter	1947	365	Winter	1949	615
Spring	1947	250	Spring	1949	576
Summer	1947	543	Summer	1949	784
Fall	1947	466	Fall	1949	811
Winter	1948	520	Winter	1950	822

Spring	1950	763	Winter	1954	696
Summer	1950	977	Spring	1954	597
Fall	1950	946	Summer	1954	863
Winter	1951	867	Fall	1954	786
Spring	1951	809	Winter	1955	961
Summer	1951	1071	Spring	1955	741
Fall	1951	976	Summer	1955	715
Winter	1952	895	Fall	1955	981
Spring	1952	734	Winter	1956	1122
Summer	1952	749	Spring	1956	847
Fall	1952	976	Summer	1956	911
Winter	1953	597	Fall	1956	957
Spring	1953	493	Winter	1957	914
Summer	1953	503	Spring	1957	779
Fall	1953	611	Summer	1957	955

At every stage in the brief history of Mexico City College thus far, the veteran component has been a significant one in its enrollment statistics. In 1946, veterans constituted 33.5 per cent of all students, and by 1950 they comprised 69 per cent. While total enrollment figures for 1956 and 1957 have remained relatively high, the percentage of veterans has declined. By the Fall of 1956, veterans accounted for 56 per cent of the student body, and they now constitute less than half. The statistics suggest, consequently, that a student body of viable size can be maintained in the face of declining veteran enrollment.

As the percentage of veterans has dropped, the proportion of women in the student body has risen. During the summer session of 1950, 506 men and 141 women registered as undergraduates; by the summer session of 1957, there were 436 men and 245 women. The Graduate School, in its composition, has registered comparable changes.

A more "traditional" and "feminine" student body also has meant a more stable, less transient, student population. Whereas full-time students accounted for only about 55 per cent of the summer school enrollment in 1950, they comprised 84.6 per cent during the summer of 1957.

The curriculum of Mexico City College at least partially reflects the professed educational philosophy of its administrators. According to the College catalogue, "the administrators of Mexico City College believe that a broad liberal arts program is the best basis for general

education. . . . History, literature, philosophy, logic, ethics, art, music, geography, English, and Spanish form the basis of cultural orientation at the college. . . . The faculty and administration are united in the belief that a view of life based too narrowly on science is not a good thing and should not, therefore, be unduly emphasized in a general educational program. Overspecialization, the abuse of the elective system, and planned neglect of the humanities have narrowed the background of American students for several generations. The time has come to study the past, with the hope of recovering for present and future generations the best of a splendid heritage that made Europe and America dynamic centers of laudable social, cultural, spiritual, and economic activities."

Accordingly, the College requires in its General Studies Program that candidates for the A.B. degree complete 20 quarter hours in English; 21 quarter hours in a Foreign Language (for all practical purposes, Spanish); 5 quarter hours in Geography; 18-20 quarter hours in History; 2-3 quarter hours in Introduction to Art; 2 quarter hours in Introduction to Music; 13 quarter hours in Philosophy; and 10 quarter hours in Science (from which Fine Arts majors are exempted). In addition, each student is required to attend ten orientation lectures on Mexico, which carry one quarter hour credit. In satisfying requirements of the divisional program, as distinguished from the general studies program, the student must present a concentration of courses in a major field. Additional courses to bring the total of quarter hours up to a minimum of 180 may be selected on an elective basis.

The degree of Bachelor of Arts is awarded by the College to students who fulfill curricular requirements, spend at least three quarters in residence, and maintain the equivalent of a "C" average. By June 1957, the College had awarded the bachelor's degree, including the degree of Bachelor of Fine Arts, to 1113 students.

Since 1947, the College includes a Graduate School, directed by Lorna Lavery Stafford, who holds a Ph.D. from the Johns Hopkins University, and awards the graduate degrees of Master of Arts and Master of Fine Arts. Graduate work, however, is restricted to the following departments and areas: Anthropology, Applied Arts, Business Administration, Hispanic Languages and Literatures, Geography, International Relations, and Latin American Studies (with specialization in either Creative Writing, Economics, or History). The formal requirements for the Master's degree are rigorous: at least four

quarters of residence; a minimum of 50 graduate quarter hours of academic courses; a reading knowledge of Spanish (or a second Romance Language for majors in Hispanic Languages, or English if the mother tongue of the student is not English); a comprehensive oral and written examination in the field of concentration; a grade average of "B"; and a satisfactory thesis. By June, 1957, the College had awarded Master's degrees to 273 students. As the following table indicates, graduate students are far from a negligible element in the recent enrollment figures of the College:

<i>Session</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Graduate</i>
Spring	1956	847	147
Summer	1956	911	253
Fall	1956	957	116
Winter	1957	914	91
Spring	1957	779	94
Summer	1957	955	214

Although Mexico City College is scarcely out of swaddling clothes as an institution of higher education, the Alumni Office, in accordance with the universal and indefatigable practices of alumni offices, already has begun to accumulate records of graduates to which the school may "point with pride." And the roster of alumni now lists writers of books, including the authors of *Juniper and the General* and *Fabulous Ancestor*; recipients of Ph.D.'s from North American institutions; businessmen, both in the United States and Latin American countries; graduate students at the University of Texas, Harvard, Michigan State University, the University of Missouri, Stanford, the University of California, and many other universities in France, England, Mexico, and the United States; members of the United States Foreign Service; a small army of faculty members of reputable and distinguished colleges and universities in the United States; an archivist; and—housewives, with nostalgic memories of Mexican college days.

## VI

Mexico City College of course is not free of serious problems and conspicuous deficiencies. Wholly dependent upon tuition payments as a source of income, the College has been forced to solve financial problems of staggering dimensions. Despite the financial wizardry and initiative of administrators, faculty salaries are deplorably low. To be sure, the cost of living in Mexico is appreciably lower than in the United States, and the peculiar nature of the labor market

often makes it possible for a faculty member to afford the luxury of household servants. Fringe benefits are provided for the faculty: inexpensive meals, free transportation to and from the College, a medical program, and emergency loan facilities. But when all allowances are made, the conclusion stands that the level of salaries is by no means adequate. Competent members of the faculty have remained only because they are willing to make material sacrifices in order to live in or carry on research in Mexico.

Another obstacle to the achievement of the status and recognition which Mexico City College seeks is the absence of tenure principles and policies. Again, the perplexing array of priorities which pressed for attention in the formative days of the College deflected attention from this conventional problem of academic life. In order to recruit a suitably qualified faculty and to maintain high morale, however, the College undoubtedly will find it necessary to grapple with the issues of faculty tenure.

The absence of satisfactory salary scales and tenure principles is reflected somewhat in the composition of the faculty. There are dedicated members of the staff who devote themselves unselfishly to students and creatively utilize the research opportunities provided by the location of the College in Mexico. In 1956, specially written essays and scholarly articles by members of the faculty were collected in a thick, bilingual volume, entitled *Anthology MCC 1956*, which the College presented as a contribution to the Seventh Mexican Book Fair. On the other hand, many members of the faculty—some with outstanding local reputations—are employed on a temporary or part-time basis, and some find it necessary to hold additional employment. And the College lacks a large, solid core of faculty with Ph.D. degrees; of the 81 full-time faculty members in 1956, 12 held earned doctorate degrees and 35 held earned master's degrees. (An objective evaluation of the degree picture among the faculty requires that recognition be taken of at least two modifying factors: many Mexican and Spanish members of the faculty hold advanced degrees comparable to advanced degrees from United States universities; much of the language instruction—as distinguished from teaching of literature—probably attains higher standards of utility in the hands of native Mexican teachers than if the instruction were in the hands of research-oriented scholars with the Ph.D. and little interest in the conjugation of verbs.)

With respect to the administrative role of the faculty, formal provisions for faculty participation in College decision-making are frag-



mentary. Regularized and organized channels of communication between faculty and administration are absent.

In the field of student selection, opportunity for the application of increasingly rigorous standards remains. The College attracts a number of excellent students and a core capable of satisfactory work. Some students who hope to escape from an unsatisfactory adjustment in the United States, however, simply find that they have transferred their scholastic problems from one country to another.

Finally, the Library of Mexico City College, while managed and supervised by persons trained in library science, cannot inspire vociferous enthusiasm on the part of research scholars. It contains about 20,000 volumes and regularly receives about 250 periodicals. Fortunately, however, students and faculty are not restricted to the resources of the College Library. They also have access to the Benjamin Franklin Library, the *Instituto Anglo-Mexicano*, the library of the American Embassy, and a number of Mexican private and institutional libraries, including the *Biblioteca Nacional* with its collection of 500,000 volumes.

The negative features of Mexico City College, of course, deserve to be placed in perspective. The millennium in faculty salaries has not yet arrived at most institutions of higher education. Mexico City College is not the only college in the world which, as yet, has not embraced the tenure policies and principles of administrative organization recommended by the American Association of University Professors. The item of higher standards of student admission is not absent from the agenda of many faculty meetings anywhere in the United States. (Yes, we have a committee on improving admission standards at Washington University!) And there are few research-minded faculties which are complacent about the state of their university's libraries. Nevertheless, if Mexico City College seriously intends to pursue the goals it has set for itself, its administrators will find it necessary to cope tenaciously, courageously, and constructively with the problems inherent in the maintenance of high faculty morale and high standards of student selection.

At the center of the circle of thorny problems which surrounds Mexico City College is the troublesome issue of accreditation. The College is a member of the Association of Texas Colleges with extra-territorial status (unhappy terminology for a Latin American country!), and students may transfer credits to any institution holding membership in the Association on the same basis that credit is granted in transfer to or from other members of the Association. The Na-

tional University of Mexico accepts degrees from Mexico City College on a basis of equality with degrees from recognized institutions of higher learning in the United States. The *Escuela Nacional de Antropología e Historia* and the College have established free interchange of courses on the undergraduate as well as the graduate level. Credits earned at Mexico City College frequently are transferred to colleges and universities in the United States. But it is the problem of general accreditation which places the most severe strain on the ingenuity of the College's administrators. Accreditation they are determined to secure. Among other things, the achievement of this goal is likely further to strengthen the faculty, to attract students with more uniform intellectual qualifications, and to provide access to fresh sources of financial support. But, ironically and predictably, the pursuit of accreditation, in turn, requires augmented financial resources! Despite the circular nature of the problem, the College, as the concluding section of this article indicates, is taking realistic and practicable measures to achieve the status of an accredited institution in one of the North American Regional Associations.

## VII

In attempting to estimate the future role of Mexico City College, North American educators logically must focus attention on the relevant trends within the College, rather than on a review of the past history of the institution. However romantic and sentimentally poignant the details of the early struggles for survival of the College may appear to the enterprising and pioneering men and women who founded it, the directions of change command the most general academic interest.

Broadly characterized, Mexico City College has been shifting—at a rapid pace in the last few years—from an institution for private profit to a more or less orthodox version of the American nonprofit type of college. Administrative procedures consonant with this movement have been introduced. A nonprofit charter has been secured. A Board of Directors, to which financial responsibility and control over administrative personnel is being transferred, has been established. Formal structure, the Administrative Council, for the elaboration of academic policies has been created. An Honorary Board of Advisors, with obvious academic bias, has been set up.

Likewise, there has been a discernible trend to create a conventional college campus with the familiar student life of North America. Except for a new archaeological research center in Oaxaca, a single

campus now consolidates all the activities of the College. The bulletin boards are crowded with notices of lectures, religious services, trips, and club meetings. (A Chaucer Club has appeared in even this enclave of Hispanic studies.) There is a school paper, a little theater, a student council, and a permanent bridge game.

Academically, the trend has been in the direction of strengthening and stabilizing the faculty (the proportion of full-time faculty members increased from 15 to 50 per cent between 1953 and 1957), elevating scholastic standards and applying more severe admission criteria. Opportunities to engage recognized faculty members from United States institutions for a summer or winter quarter are seized. Mexican and European instructors, sometimes reluctant to record low grades for United States nationals, are persuaded to apply a non-discriminatory policy of "rewards and punishments." Instructors from the United States are encouraged to complete work for graduate degrees. Since the College plans to maintain an enrollment of about 1000, the anticipated rise in applications for admission should enable it to reap the intellectual benefits of a more rigidly selective admission program.

Because Mexico City College has not been wrecked by the hazardous shoals in the path of a new academic vessel on strange academic seas, its navigators now are inclined to assume an optimistic, expansionist posture. They plan new facilities; they chart new curricula; they confidently discuss experiments with ambitious new professional programs. From my angle of vision, however, the greatest potentialities and opportunities for the College lie in the following directions:

1. The development of an accredited four-year undergraduate college of liberal arts of recognized status and prestige. With its physical plant, faculty, and wealth of operating experience, the College is in an excellent position to relieve the congestion in North American institutions. To the student who wishes to study abroad, moreover, the College can prove especially attractive; and to the student with a special interest in Hispanic and Mexican studies, the College can offer distinctively superior facilities.

2. The cultivation of an international center for archaeological and anthropological instruction and research. Since 1947 members of the Anthropology Department of Mexico City College have engaged in field research; since the winter of 1951-52 large projects have been carried out in Oaxaca; since 1954 a continuing project has been in operation at the site of Yagul, where archaeological workers of Mexico City College have begun excavation of an ancient



city; and in the summer of 1957, the Anthropology Department published the fifth in its series of research reports, *Mesoamerican Notes* 5. As a climax to its efforts in this area, the College announced in August that by September 1957 the physical plant would be extended to Oaxaca with the dedication of a new study and research center, the *Centro de Estudios Regionales*. The *Centro* will function as a field station whose facilities will be available to students from Mexico City College and research workers from other institutions. Obviously, research opportunities of this nature cannot be duplicated in countries less richly endowed with archaeological ruins than Mexico.

3. The establishment of a center for Latin American studies which emphasizes the research techniques, methodology, and conceptual orientation of North American social science. There are evident advantages in pursuing Latin American studies in a Latin American country. At the same time, it must be acknowledged that Latin American scholars and North American scholars often do not seek answers to the same questions. Mexico City College can discharge a unique function by stressing the empirical and behavioral methods of North American social science in a Latin American setting, for the legal and philosophical approach to the study of social and political behavior is adequately represented and articulated by scholars at other institutions in Latin America.

4. The assimilation of a large number of local residents into the campus community. The reciprocal advantages for Mexicans and Americans of extending the scope of their contacts are numerous. The concepts and methods of North American research may well prove stimulating to Mexican students and scholars; the insights and direct experiences of the Mexicans will prove invaluable for North Americans. Although the College welcomes Mexican students, in the fall of 1956 only 62 Mexican nationals were enrolled in an undergraduate student body of 841. The investment of funds for scholarship assistance to an increasing number of Mexican students will yield rich intellectual dividends in formal education, informal friendships, and expanded research opportunities.

5. An expansion of the College's services to transient and special groups and individuals. Workshops, courses, and seminars for specially organized groups have become an integral feature of the academic program of Mexico City College. Since 1946 Professor James B. Tharp of Ohio State University has sponsored an annual Winter Quarter at Mexico City College. For the past three summer sessions,

St. Louis University has conducted a workshop in Human Relations and Group Guidance at the College. During the summer of 1957, Professor Ronald Hilton, Director, Hispanic American Studies, Stanford University, held a seminar entitled *Living Latin America* at the College. In addition, the College itself offers summer workshops in Latin American Culture and Creative Writing, and co-operates with Mexican institutions of higher education in a workshop on Maya Culture. The College has expressed willingness to co-operate with North American colleges and universities in plans of study which permit students to spend their junior year in Mexico. Such plans are designed particularly for students specializing in Latin American Studies and Hispanic Languages and Literatures. The College, moreover, receives a continuous flow of North American scholars and research workers in search of specific assistance. During a three-month period in 1957, Dr. Elmendorf estimates, the College provided over 30 North American scholars with letters of introduction and general orientation to the Mexican scene.

The future of these special services and programs, clearly, is not simply in the hands of Mexico City College. To a considerable degree, expansion in these areas is dependent upon the initiative, flexibility, imagination, and alertness of educators in the United States. Facilities, staff and administrative organization and know-how, in any event, are available at the College.

6. The systematization of joint-degree programs with North American universities. Promising negotiations for the establishment of so-called 3-2 programs, by which students would pursue three years of a liberal arts curriculum at Mexico City College and two years of professional training at institutions in the United States, have been initiated. Such combined-degree programs may prove mutually beneficial to the educational institutions involved and provide students with a somewhat broader and more diversified higher education.

This description and analysis of the activities of Mexico City College suggest that the full potentialities of the College cannot be realized in splendid isolation. Basically an American college for Americans, the College, by virtue of its location on Mexican soil, functions as a unique institution of higher education. Whether or not the vast range of possibilities which its unique position makes possible will be translated into reality, however, depends upon the evolving relations between Mexico City College and the colleges and universities of North America.

## Challenging Teenagers

GEORGE E. CARROTHERS

MANY dedicated, competent teachers are working to their full capacity in secondary schools today. Much of the teaching is well done. Teenagers are obtaining a fair acquaintance with the fundamentals of "reading, writing and arithmetic," statements to the contrary notwithstanding. Millions of dollars are being spent on school plants. Elaborate gadgets and facilities are being provided to meet the needs and suit the whims of immature youth. Curriculums are being modernized and broadened to include everything from "technique of makeup" to tap dancing. A tremendous problem is being created—that of finding ways and means to direct youthful energy. When we as adults do not find satisfying ways, youths discover their own outlets. At the moment we do not seem to be succeeding too well. Schools and other agencies are not finding suitable ways for the wholesome consumption of this abundant energy. Larger numbers of youth are becoming misfits in society. J. Edgar Hoover states that "a total of 234,474 children under 18 were arrested in 1956. . . . Youths under 18 represented almost two-thirds of all offenders arrested for auto theft. . . . The crime rate last year increased four times faster than the population."

A large share of the responsibility for out-of-school, wayward youth, must be borne by schools with poorly prepared teachers working under unfavorable conditions, although credit is due schools for the conscientious, challenging teaching in thousands of classrooms. We should take credit where credit is due, but we must face the facts fairly when we as teachers are at fault. It has been my privilege and pleasure to observe effective teaching in hundreds of classrooms across the country in the course of examining secondary schools and colleges for approval purposes, and concurrently working with prospective teachers in schools of education. Probably the most important factor in the youth situation today is that of securing prepared, competent teachers in secondary schools where all youth meet; the paying of adequate salaries; and the providing of working conditions under which these interested teachers are able to challenge teenage youth.

## KNOWING ONE'S TEACHING FIELD

Once Dean J. B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan School of Education asked me to check on the work of a recent graduate, a young woman with a physical handicap whom he had known since she was a small girl. She had majored in French and had taken her required hours in teacher education. As the depression was on she had been unable to secure a position the first year. She remained at the University for a master's degree in French, continued study in Latin and other languages, and in the following year obtained a position teaching French and Latin. The first response of the principal to me was, "She is one of the most competent teachers we have. The first year she did very well. The second year her classes increased in size; and now the third year many more pupils want her work. Pupils are showing more interest in the study of Latin and French than ever before. Next year we will make Miss X head of the department of languages."

No tests were given; no scientifically accepted measures of success were applied. At the close of a day visiting classes throughout the school, I readily accepted the word of the principal, the attitude and attainment of pupils, and the evident happiness Miss X was enjoying in her work, as evidence that this teacher was competent. As the years passed she not only improved her ability to teach but also continued the study of languages and related fields. From semester to semester the pupils showed increasing interest in language study and in their total school program. Pupils had respect for the scholarship of their language teacher.

I have observed the work of many master teachers in both public and nonpublic secondary schools and colleges, and wish space permitted reference to a number of them. They come from many walks of life, and are obtained in various ways and from varied sources. I must mention two as special examples.

One was a teacher of Greek in a small college, who had more students enrolled in his classes than were in the Department of Latin. He had studied Greek, Latin, and other languages, ancient history, art, and architecture, and had traveled in Italy and Greece. His students were learning much more than a "dead language"; they were learning ancient and modern life. He was so at ease in his special field of teaching that his students were happy in the courses they took with him.

The other was an unusually successful dean of girls in a large high school, whose influence permeated the entire school. It did not seem to come from any one thing she did or said but rather from her attitude and her known interest in the welfare of both girls and boys. She was able to bring out the best in each pupil. One day I listened to a corridor conversation among several boys who had engaged in a disturbing school prank on a previous day but were not going through with another one they had been planning. The leader would not go along with the others. I wondered why. Later, I accosted this strapping teenager and tactfully raised the question. His reply was, "Dean Y knew I took part in the other one. Next day she stopped me in the hallway and said, 'Herman, I didn't expect that of you.'"

When I asked the principal where he found such a competent teacher, his reply was, "We grew her." Then he told of observing the interest of this woman in the problems of young people. Her teaching load was lightened somewhat so she could give more attention to counseling. The school board paid her expenses to a summer session at the state university, where she studied psychology, sociology, guidance, and related subjects. She was given opportunity to attend meetings of deans of girls. Gradually she developed into the excellent teenage worker I had been observing. Her salary was increased as she grew more effective in her work. In education as in medicine, law, engineering, or any other field of scientific endeavor, there is no substitute for a basic understanding of one's own special field.

#### EVIDENCE OF COMPETENCY

Experiences of registrars, deans of colleges, and other admissions officers clearly demonstrate that some schools have better teaching staffs than others. Products of the schools prove this. Some college admissions officers check much more carefully on the transcripts and other admission data from some schools and colleges than from others. In fact admissions officers are so favorably impressed by the teaching in some schools that they are inclined toward admitting any student recommended. Part of this is due to the thoughtful recommending policies of the principal or headmaster but more largely to the quality of teaching being done. The daily work of secondary schools proclaims them.

We are assuming that the particular task before American second-



ary schools is that of developing innate abilities—the providing of a foundation which will enable teenagers to make further satisfactory personal progress whether they do or do not go to college. Since an increasing percentage of youth are going to college, and since the future leaders will come largely from these college-bound students, we are primarily concerned with the quality of the “tools” possessed by them when they become high school graduates. Hence the great importance attached to the securing of competent, well educated teachers in secondary schools. Incompetent teaching in high school results in a loss of development in youthful ability which can never be recovered.

Not all credit for good teaching, nor all responsibility for ineffective teaching, can be assigned to colleges. The selection, assignment, and supervision of teachers is of immeasurable importance. In one shockingly “modern” secondary school recently visited where “social adjustment” was almost the sole objective, pupils were not being held to good performance in any of the solid academic subjects. Almost none of the sixty to seventy seniors could write a brief paragraph with meaning. Only a few of them could spell; their penmanship was illegible; and very few of them had even an elementary understanding of science, mathematics, or any language. Yet the school had a first-class football team, the pupils had many social clubs, and a school dance was held almost every week. The administration appeared to be satisfied. The boys and girls in that school were “adjusted,” and were enjoying themselves.

At the noon hour I sought opportunity to talk with some of the seniors. They were a happy, carefree group. Everyone said he liked school. One charming girl of about eighteen said she had danced or attended parties or games three or four nights every week since entering high school. “My folks ain’t had no trouble gettin’ me to go to school,” was her last ejaculation before starting for the class in senior English. I went along and sat in the rear of the room. As frequently happens, the teacher gave the pupils a written lesson which she had been “promising” them. In the long selection they had been studying, many words had been pointed out by the teacher to be used in a spelling lesson some day. This was the day. Fifty words were pronounced distinctly by the teacher. Many were quite ordinary words; others were as difficult as these words which I am now copying from the paper of the charming girl of the hallway conversation. Later,

the paper was photographed, and returned to the teacher of English. Some of the difficult words are "inviolable, rapidity, parasite, planting, because, flowering."

Some of the pupils did rather well. On the whole, however, the record was shocking, to say the least—no better than average fifth graders ought to do. My capable-appearing conversationalist missed *every* word, as the photostatic copy shows. Yet all pupils were "socially adjusted."

My report back to the school, among other things, stated that if I were a parent of one of those high school seniors, especially the eighteen year old girl, I would sue the Board of Education for malpractice. Doctors are sometimes sued for malpractice, why not boards of education? This capable eighteen year old girl will be forever handicapped. She has literally been trapped. It will be impossible for her to break her present habits. To obtain even the most rudimentary tools necessary for living a happy useful life she would have to begin all over again in the lower grades. This she will not do. She will always be a misfit in society, or she will have to take a place at a much lower cultural level than the one she might have occupied. Her outlook on life will always be limited. When she awakens to the fact that she cannot dance her way to happy, useful living she will turn with reproach upon her teachers, the men and women who cheated her out of her birthright.

#### IMPORTANCE OF CHALLENGING SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

The most significant single reason why pupils drop out of high school is the lack of challenge to their best efforts and abilities. Difficult tasks and hard work seldom discourage and often stimulate and encourage energetic youth. When I was Assistant Superintendent of the Cleveland schools some years ago I took it upon myself to find out why pupils in the Boys' School or in evening schools had left regular day school. The "easy-way-out" questionnaire method so frequently resorted to in professional education courses today was dismissed without a thought. With a specially prepared set of questions it is quite easy to obtain the answers desired. A bit of summarizing, and presto! there is the research (?) study, or the master's thesis, or possibly a doctor's dissertation. That method was discarded for a thoughtful talk with each pupil and often with his parents. The down-to-earth interviews became quite revealing.

Seldom did I find that finances were the cause of leaving school even though that is one of the reasons so often given. One boy, after a few years out of school, enrolled in evening classes at West Technical High School. He was positive that he had had to drop out of day school at sixteen for lack of money. At eighteen or nineteen he enrolled in two evening classes and was doing good work. The parents of the boy, however, said money had nothing to do with Mike's leaving day school. They were fairly well off and quite anxious for their son to continue to graduation. But he would not. They had even purchased an auto for him and had tried in every way to keep him in school.

During a second talk with Mike, he "opened up." He spoke of the day-school teachers as "dim bulbs," he had run afoul of the principal, and he was not interested in any of the subjects taught. Even the athletic programs in which he had had some interest, he later disliked. He said the coach had become too lazy to get out on the field with the boys to show them how to play games. Nothing in school interested him. He "hated" to go. So he stopped. That was almost the universal statement of the several hundred boys and girls interviewed.

Hundreds of times I have watched pupils engage wholeheartedly in the most difficult sorts of tasks under the thoughtful, challenging supervision of a qualified teacher. Football calls for hard work, yet boys keep returning for more. Shop work, home economics, music, the study of languages, science, and mathematics call for hard work; but when competent teaching brings a challenge to teenagers in any of these fields, pupils grit their teeth and hang on until they succeed. There is no substitute for qualified master teachers. When city boards of education erect monumental five to ten million dollar high schools and overlook the importance of adequately paid teachers, youth problems just naturally arise. No wonder the Mikes and Marys stop school as soon as the law permits. They grow weary looking at underpaid, overworked, poorly prepared teachers, too often politically appointed or merely holding onto a job while putting a husband through a professional school, or helping him to make a start in a better paying business.

One of the productive ways to obtain and retain competent teachers is to push the entering salary to a higher level so that capable persons can be attracted to the positions, then to provide for merit recogni-



tion with salaries in secondary schools up to ten, twelve, or fifteen thousand dollars. Why drive our most competent men and women out of the profession or into administration, for which they often do not have a liking and for which they frequently are not fitted, in order that they can earn enough to take care of their families in a respectable manner?

During the 1920's while examining a high school I spent one period in a World History Class taught by a state university graduate. The class was beginning a study of the first World War. Five pages in the text had been assigned. After a few preliminary remarks and a few words of welcome to the visitor, the teacher called on a pupil to read the first paragraph. The second paragraph in the history text was read by another pupil, and thus the brief recitation (?) proceeded to the end of the day's assignment. The teacher assigned the next five or six pages for the next lesson, remarking that the pupils might do whatever they chose for the next twenty to twenty-five minutes until the bell would sound.

I told Dean Edmonson of the incident, and suggested that the teacher had missed a real opportunity with those teenagers. The text started immediately with the war: how much more meaningful the accounts of campaigns might have become if those teenagers could have been given the background of the war! Dean Edmonson waited a moment, then observed, "You are expecting a great deal of a coach." It was then I learned that many boards of education would not employ a coach unless he did some academic teaching. This teacher of history had taken about ninety hours in professional education, including physical education. He was not qualified to teach any academic subject, but finally agreed to take a history class—he could "read and keep ahead of the pupils."

About that time Dean Yoakum and others made the study of certain relationships existing between high school and college success. One table in that study concerns *Correlations of University Grades with Numbers of Units of Certain High School Subjects*. The attempt was "to show to what extent, amount of subject in high school determines college quality."

The study shows that the greater the amount of language taken in secondary school the higher the quality of work in college. Correlations are small, but positive. The same holds true for most high school subjects. In contrast, on one page we find thirteen correla-

tions showing the relationship of number of units of history taken in high school to quality of college work—all are negative. None is large, and none is positive. This means that at the time of the investigation and under the conditions then existing, the more units of history taken by a pupil in high school the less satisfactory the quality of work in college.

A bit of explanation is necessary. Coaches and others frequently not qualified academically, and having no special teaching field of preparation on account of excessive hours of professional education, were often assigned to "hear the classes" in social studies. Many of them, knowing they were not qualified to teach these subjects, did not want to penalize the pupils, so they decided on leniency in assigning grades. At least several of them gave this explanation. Pupils soon became aware of the situation and took advantage of it.

Always there are a few pupils in high school who fail one or more subjects; frequently these are the athletes who are not particularly interested in high school studies and who are spending excessive amounts of time on athletic fields. By the junior year they awaken to the fact that they will probably not have the required sixteen units for graduation at the end of the fourth year. They hurry to enroll in an extra course or two to make up the loss. Strange as it may seem, a few thoughtless unconcerned teachers and principals permit the extra enrollments. Just how they reason that a pupil who has been able to do only fairly satisfactory work in two or at most *three* subjects during the freshman and sophomore years will be able to handle five or six subjects satisfactorily as a junior, has always been beyond my comprehension. But the practice is still to be found.

Pupils needing extra units to graduate do not choose additional courses in English, science, mathematics, or language. They choose something in which less exacting study will be required and in which there are greater possibilities for bluffing. Also, a goodly number choose to take any courses taught by their coaches. Competent, qualified, thoughtful teachers and administrators do not permit such deplorable situations to come upon them.

#### EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

As a first step in the education and training of competent teachers for secondary schools, a college-wide program or curriculum ought to be developed through the co-operation of at least four agencies:

(1) the liberal arts college, (2) the teacher training school, (3) a few competent teachers from secondary schools, and (4) a group of parents of teenage boys and girls. A major ought to be required in the main teaching subject and an adequate minor in the related subject as a partial guarantee that a prospective teacher will have at least a fair acquaintance with his teaching field or fields. This study ought to consist of more than merely obtaining semester hours of credit in subject matter material. It ought also to provide for acquaintance with reference books, magazines, and other literature in the field; an acquaintance with some of the leaders in the special areas; and at least some indication of a beginning interest in one's personal study, research, and investigation. The college should require a few hours of professional education, consisting at least of an introduction to education, and student teaching or intern teaching under as nearly normal conditions as possible. Other appropriate courses should bring the undergraduate semester hours of professional education up to a total of approximately one-eighth of the four years of college study.

Graduate study programs of teachers in secondary schools ought to continue the study in individual teaching and related fields. In departments where graduate courses might not be suitable there are available helpful courses in related fields. For example graduate courses in higher mathematics in the college of liberal arts might not be particularly helpful to the teacher of algebra and geometry, but courses in physics, accounting, and other fields of applied mathematics would be of untold benefit. When a person knows only the subject he is teaching, he probably does not know that subject well. It is difficult for anyone to teach up to the limit of his own knowledge. Also, when a teacher, doctor, lawyer, or engineer is intrigued by or curious concerning advanced knowledge in his own area, he is reaching toward his highest level of usefulness to his clientele and satisfaction to himself.

Administrators can improve the efficiency of their staffs by giving special attention to appointing and promoting those who have master's degrees in their teaching fields. The obtaining of a master's degree in professional education by a teacher of academic subjects in a secondary school is nearly always an indication of lack of interest in the special teaching field. Such teachers run into difficulty when trying to develop interest among teenagers in subjects in which they themselves have already shown a lack of interest.

Thoughtful postgraduate students, whether teachers, doctors, or engineers, choose to study under the most competent teachers and researchers in their fields. These interested, advanced students travel long distances, endure privation, and absent themselves from their families for a time in order to study under master teachers. The teaching, the association with and the inspiration of these competent teachers are of lasting benefit. In similar vein we know that boys and girls in their teens will profit immeasurably under the teaching and inspiring leadership of broadly educated master teachers in secondary schools. The stimulating work of even a few outstanding teachers permeates all teaching areas and improves the whole school program. Despite my lack of interest in English and languages I was held in school by two competent teachers. Once I came under the influence of the teacher of mathematics, and later the teacher of science, nothing could have induced me to drop out of high school.

During these many years since high school graduation I have often wondered how those two teachers obtained such a firm, intangible hold on their pupils. The teacher of mathematics seemed to know about all there was to know in his field. He taught as if the whole of life depended on knowing mathematics. Those were interesting, challenging class periods. We became so interested in algebra, geometry, and other mathematics classes that several of us were always pages, even chapters ahead of the class. One day about Thanksgiving time, the teacher gently told me that I had made use of a proposition in geometry which we would not be studying for several weeks. He suggested that I use only the ones we had studied. Then he asked whether I had been working ahead. I told him that I had; that geometry was so interesting I had solved all the problems to the end of the book. He said encouragingly that that was the goal the class hoped to reach by the end of the year.

The teacher of science thought that most of the world's problems would be solved through a knowledge of science. He was continually conducting experiments and research studies outside school hours. Any of his pupils who were interested were permitted to remain in the laboratory to watch, and even to assist. It was a small school, yet a fourth of the members of our graduating class decided to major in science in college.

Qualified, competent teachers so well grounded in their academic and other teaching fields that they are students as well as teachers,

have an unconscious drawing power with teenage boys and girls. These teachers not only "pull" pupils to school but also draw out of them the best that is in them. Too long, even in high places, we have looked on education as "stuffing," "cramming," "spoon feeding," and reciting out of books. Education of the best sort, the education that will bring personal satisfaction and give promise of continuing, is a leading out or developing of the innate ability of the learner. The Comenius cistern plan of education is gradually and painfully disappearing.

#### CLASS VISITING AND EXCHANGE OF IDEAS

An idea which has been considered but has been given only infrequent trial is that of interdepartmental or interschool visiting of classes by teachers in secondary schools. A few departments of universities are using the practice with considerable success in the development of competent teachers and better teaching. Other schools might profit by a study of its possibilities. It is worth thinking about even though extremely difficult to inaugurate. There should be a gradual introduction on a carefully planned basis after extensive discussion by all teachers concerned.

Administrators are beginning to realize that competent teachers are not always available in the open market. Instead of following the "hire and fire" policy, they are trying to "grow" and develop their own teachers. One of the plans being used is that of interclass visiting, and later conferences for exchange of ideas. Some ideas or suggestions can be acted on at once, others noted for possible later use, and others discarded as not useful in the given situation. In class visiting, teachers become better acquainted, the tone of the school is improved, and pupils are better taught. At least that is the testimony of those few schools where the procedure has been given a fair trial. Other schools might well give the idea consideration. Schools with certain kinds of staffs might find it nearly impossible, and others could not use it at all.

The average teacher in a given teaching situation does not grow very much after three or four years' experience in the same position. If the teacher is not to settle into formal, routine, stereotyped classroom procedure, new information, new points of view, and fresh inspiration must be provided. One of the helpful ways to keep teachers on their toes and growing is found in the teacher-visiting-



exchange-of-ideas program. Medicine, engineering, and other professions have found this sort of procedure quite productive; cannot teachers benefit from it?

During a hospital experience some years ago my "case" became as serious as that of a boy who is about to be expelled from a class or school. The teacher finds him hopeless, so he is kicked out of the class, or the school. Formerly when doctors were at their wits' end they gave up, called the undertaker, and had their mistake buried. Now, many an effective conference of doctors is held. I know. I am still living, thanks to nine trained medical men who examined me, took their Hippocratic oath seriously, and tried to make helpful suggestions to our family physician. The doctors put aside their prejudices. They were as thoughtful as the workmen giving "consideration to a broken-down car in a roadside garage. The rural mechanic thinks scientifically; his only aim is to avail himself of his (and others') knowledge of the nature and workings of the car, with a view to making it run once more."<sup>1</sup> Adults working with human beings ought at least to be as thoughtful.

Why cannot we as teachers try out a method already found successful in other fields? Such a procedure, tactfully and unemotionally started, can mean much for improved teaching, wholesome development of pupils, and growth of teachers. Among the necessary conditions for success of the interclass visiting plan are:

1. A willingness on the part of the teacher to admit that he does not know all there is to know in his teaching field.
2. A desire on the part of the teacher to learn how to handle his pupils more successfully.
3. A willingness to permit others to enter his private domain—the classroom.
4. A largeness of attitude which makes possible the acceptance of suggestions offered in a friendly spirit. No need to act on every suggestion, but enough "bigness" to give thoughtful consideration to others' ideas.
5. A desire on the part of every teacher to know child nature better—a desire to learn why children act as they do.
6. A desire on the part of the teacher to act in such a way that the best, the most wholesome responses are evoked from boys and girls. In the spirit of the man who said, "I love you because of what I am when I am with you," let us, without prejudice, examine and

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<sup>1</sup> James Harvey Robinson, *The Mind in the Making*.

compare the actions of these immature teenagers when they are with us with their actions when they are with the most competent teachers in the school.

Among the beneficial results to be expected from interclass visiting and courteous discussion are the following:

1. More careful daily preparation for efficient use of the total teaching period. Knowledge that a fellow teacher is in the room, or that one may drop in, helps to get the class started on time, and helps to keep the teaching and discussion from lagging.
2. Development of a wider-spread attention on the part of all boys and girls.
3. Fewer smart-aleck actions.
4. Friendly discussion that helps the teacher to see his teaching through the eyes of another.
5. New techniques learned from other workers in the same field.
6. Development of a more considerate attitude toward children. The one uninhibited "czar" still to be found is the "mature" teacher back of his or her desk. This dictatorial teacher handles classes in his own individual manner, gives the grades or marks which his method prescribes, and defies the administrator or parent to raise a question. Class visiting and thoughtful give-and-take among teachers will help to alleviate this situation.

A doctor really wants to find a way to get his patient well. He may not always be conscious of his oath, but he acts in the spirit of its meaning. We as teachers spend so much of our working time isolated in the classroom with immature teenage children that we must struggle to avoid developing a know-it-all attitude. There is no trained adult critic to question our decisions. Interclass visiting and discussions can help us. And this is being said despite the fact that thousands of teachers are working diligently in a thoughtful, helpful spirit every day of the week. The happiness and welfare of children is uppermost in their minds at all times. Many others need to catch this dedicated teaching spirit if they are to become competent teachers.

A Mark Hopkins, or Gladstone, or Schweitzer can produce unbelievably effective results in untoward circumstances. Teachers of ability, or any teachers, can render their best services only under favorable conditions. Yet school administrators and unthinking parents are often totally oblivious to the necessity for a wholesome, stimulating atmosphere in which both teachers and pupils can grow.

It is not supposed that special efforts will be made just to keep teachers happy, as a baby sitter tries to amuse children; but it is of importance that teachers be treated as thinking, feeling human beings. When salaries are kept at low levels under the philosophy that almost anyone can teach; when wages of unionized laborers soar above the salaries of teachers of children, despite the rising costs of everything; when teachers are annoyed by petty regulations and ultracritical, unthinking parents; when we build school "palaces" out of teachers' salaries, we are sowing the wind which will later produce the whirlwind. Working conditions in some schools with obtuse, weak administrators and overstimulated, TV-mad, underfed, and undercontrolled teenagers, almost defy even the best of teachers to do effective teaching.

Education is an experience of the soul. The mechanics of grammar, spelling, and mathematics can be explained by almost anyone who has made a brief study of these subjects. That something plus, vital to the natural growth and unfolding of youth, comes in an intangible, unforeseen way as teenagers associate with dedicated masters working under unperturbed, wholesome conditions.



## Crisis or Opportunity?\*

BARNABY C. KEENEY

THE DECADE in which we are now living has frequently been called "the decade of crisis" for higher education in this country. An increasing amount of attention is given to talking about it and to urging someone to do something—almost anything. Very little attention is centered upon the obvious fact that this crisis is also an opportunity, for if we follow the proper procedure during the next few years we shall have been able to reshape our whole educational structure.

I am sure that you all know what the crisis is. The children are already born to increase the college-age group nine or ten years from now by 70 per cent. Since the tendency to enroll in college is increasing, we may very well have more than twice as many students, or at least applicants, as we have today. This clearly means that physical facilities for our colleges and universities will be inadequate; it almost certainly means that there will not be enough faculty to go around. Experience has shown that privately supported educational institutions in this country have increased in proportion to the increase in the population, while state institutions during the last 50 years, at least, have increased considerably more rapidly. It is therefore assumed, and probably correctly, that our colleges and universities must increase in size as the population increases. If educators tacitly accept this assumption and allow their institutions to grow without using the opportunity to change some practices and to demand a great many things we do not now have, the next decade will be one of *crisis*, of opportunity lost, and of national tragedy.

If our educators do not demand an increase in resources commensurate to or greater than the increase of students, twice as many students may mean half as much education for each of them—and half of what we have now is not enough to go around. If we allow ourselves to meet this challenge simply by watering down what we now have and do, we shall have betrayed the rising generation and every generation that follows it, for with the economy in its present state a golden opportunity exists to acquire a greater share of the national

\* Delivered at University of Massachusetts Convocation, September 12, 1957.

income for education. We have a chance now that we may never have again to form habits of support for education that will indeed make it possible for us not only to expand but to improve. Ten years from now any institution that has twice as many students and does not have more than twice as great resources—to put it vulgarly, money—will not have served its constituency well.

Another aspect to this problem is sometimes overlooked—the practices followed by our colleges and universities in admissions. We have for years in this country admitted to college some people who had no other qualification than a half-formed desire to attend. One result has been that less than half of those who enter college graduate and of the lost half a good many are dismissed for academic reasons, many of them because they do not have the ability to do the work. Clearly the amount of ability required varies greatly from institution to institution. Just as clearly, some of our best people at the age of 40 were not our best students at 20. I am not arguing for the exclusion of the student who is only a little better than average; I am arguing for the exclusion of the student who is a little below average. At the same time as we admit quite cheerfully students who cannot do our work, we fail to seek out and drag in some extraordinarily able people. It is estimated that as many as 40 per cent of the most able quarter of high school graduates never enter college. This is as wasteful in its way as admitting people who cannot and will not use college. Some of these do not enter because they cannot afford to, but others do not because they have never been stimulated in their schools or at home to seek higher education.

It is often assumed that a university is a place where everybody can study everything. We have, therefore, developed an incredible curricular breadth in most universities and in some colleges. Some fields are very sparsely populated by students who could study them just as well in one place as in another. Happily there is a movement on foot to bring some sense into the duplication of facilities in New England institutions. There is no evidence that the best scholars come from places with the most courses. In fact, if one may believe statistics, they clearly do not, for a very high percentage of American students who go on to attain the doctorate come from little colleges where only the most basic subjects are taught. Possibly they are inspired to go on because the teaching has been inspiring; just as possibly they are inspired because they have been forced to rely more and more upon their own resources as their curiosity has developed.

They cannot satisfy their curiosity about Chinese culture by taking a course; they must read a book—a practice that would be frowned upon in some of our best and largest places. The tendency to proliferate the curriculum is an extravagant one. Even worse, it leads to shabby teaching, for professors are assigned to teach courses in which they have no particular competence. Worst of all, it leads the students to rely on courses, to assume that what they do not get out of a course is not education. Every institution in these next ten years must re-examine its curriculum and eliminate what it should not do.

We have another opportunity. This is an age of the fruition of technology. The feasible size for a lecture is no longer determined by the size of the room, but by the range and availability of electronic devices. If our colleges and universities use television for the dissemination of knowledge with no more skill and insight than they have used a much older technological device, printing, I see no hope. But if we approach this possibility with a freshness unhampered by habit and disillusionment with students, we may be able to economize on people, though not on money.

We must indeed make a careful study of teaching and of the whole educational process. To do so, we must break down teaching into its component parts. One of these is the transmission of information. Some kinds of information can readily be transmitted to groups of infinite size. For example, if one is trying to describe an historical development, he can probably do so quite as well to a million people as to 20. There comes a point, however, which varies with the complexity of the material, where the information that is transmitted is not readily understood by the student. Here a more intimate situation is required. Where does this point occur in each subject and how often? Yet the reception and comprehension of knowledge are not the end of education; there is a further point where the problem goes beyond knowledge and understanding and becomes a matter of the development of the student's mind as a useful tool. Here part of the work must be done in intimate contact with an instructor, but most of it must be done by the student himself through the lonely experience of study and thought. If you put 40 educators into a room and asked them to define these points in the process, you would get 40 answers. You would get these 40 answers, not because 40 educators had studied the question carefully in terms of objective data, but because each of them had a different set of assumptions.

We have tried for years to make education painless. Now the

greatest opportunity of all that we have is to place more responsibility upon the student for his own education. Today we involve a relatively small percentage of our students in active participation in their own education. But if we must, and we must because we shall not have in ten years twice as many teachers to sugar-coat twice as many pills, we should force students to do their own work. I said on another occasion that the pressure for admission to college will be so great in the next few years that students will put up with anything, even an education. This is what I meant—that they must work for it, not have it given to them.

We have accepted almost without thought the assumption that part of the strength of American higher education is its diversity. This has become a cliché, even a shibboleth used to justify the *status quo*. There certainly is strength in the fact that we have large institutions and small institutions, public institutions and private institutions, generalized institutions and specialized institutions. These things are all good. Yet it is certainly a weakness that we have under the same name good institutions and bad institutions, institutions of high standards and institutions of no standards at all, honest ones and dishonest ones. It is not bad that we have rich institutions, though they show signs of fattening around the jowls, but it is a tragedy that we have poverty-stricken ones. Worst of all, we have institutions where students are soothed into the complacent acceptance of things as they are. The greatest opportunity that is before any of us is to arouse our students—to stimulate them to work by themselves.

## What Do We Mean by *Education*?\*

WILLIAM CRAIG SMYSER

### I

AMERICAN higher education has enormously changed in the last few decades. You can start an argument almost anywhere on the question of whether the changes represent progress or deterioration, but not on the question of whether the changes have taken place, nor on the fact that they are fundamental. I am not referring merely to the rise of athletics as an integer of the scholastic life, and certainly not to the horrendous prospect which we now refer to as the Impending Tidal Wave. Not that this is unimportant: it is the greatest single fact with which we have to cope; but we are all fully aware of the problem, and our best thought and energy are being directed toward its solution. What I am talking about here is the greatly increased complexity of educational institutions themselves.

A generation or two ago a student went to college with far fewer decisions to make than he has now. On most campuses, for instance, he did not have to choose among the colleges of arts, of sciences, of journalism, of commerce, and of education. There was only one. Nowadays it is the College of Liberal Arts, but then it was only the College. There was no other. Nowadays the student is offered a choice among a host of curricula and a multitude of electives. Then he took the plain and hearty diet that was offered him—mathematics, philosophy, the Classics. He was not preparing for any particular field of work, but rather was acquiring discipline and enlightenment of the mind which should fit him to meet life situations as they arose. Specialized training was not a part of the college program; it was to be acquired later, after the foundations of culture and intellectual power had been laid. His education was a process of preparation, not a process of information. It never occurred to him to demand from it immediate bread-and-butter returns. I do not mean to imply that his love of learning was keener or his aspirations purer than those of his modern ectype. I mean only that he was far less prone to regard his diploma as a meal-ticket.

Swiftly the picture has changed. Its focus has narrowed and sharp-

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\* A paper presented to the Upper Midwest Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, October 21, 1957, Collegeville, Minnesota.

ened; the educational field has been drawn down to the outlines of particular kinds of work. Whatever it has gained in depth and clarity it has lost in breadth and scope. Each student has expected to gaze through the educational lens deep into the mysteries of whatever calling he intends to follow. Frequently—and, mark you, this is the tendency I am asking you to examine with me—frequently he is willing to have all else blotted out from his field of vision. And colleges everywhere have responded to the diversity of such demands by dividing, amoeba-like, into a host of separate entities. Teachers Colleges, Schools of Journalism, of Commerce, of Agriculture and Dietetics and Social Service and Mines have multiplied and expanded until the American academic world presents a kaleidoscopic picture.

The great weakness of American education lies, of course, not in the fact that all these schools exist, but in the fact that, instead of supplementing the liberal education, they are permitted to vie with it and even to displace it. When we speak of an educated man in America we often do not mean that at all. Frequently we mean a man who holds some kind of degree because he has completed a course of training designed to make him an accountant, a schoolteacher, a reporter, or an undertaker. If along with his professional training he has acquired that access to the cultural heritage of the race which makes him a truly educated man, so much the better. But the chances are that he has not. We are confusing training with education, and we are too often satisfied with the one as a substitute for the other.

Any superintendent of schools knows the difference. As he fills the vacancies on his staff there passes in review before him a procession of trained men and women. They hold degrees and certificates. The Teachers College has set its stamp upon them, affirming its uncritical belief that they are educated people. Are they not Bachelors of Science in Education? In educational psychology, in school administration, in school law, in the methods of teaching this subject or that, they are deeply versed. In the subjects they expect to teach (which are very often not the subjects they ultimately do teach) they are sometimes, but by no means always, well grounded. But in the vast areas outside these fields their college education has advanced them very little. If you doubt it, study the curriculum of any school of education.

I recently had a talk with a young Italian schoolteacher who is in



this country on an exchange fellowship, studying educational methods here. He said, "In Italy, we spend our time telling our teachers *what* to teach. You spend your time telling them *how* to teach."

I think it is quite possible that in this sentence he put his finger on the chief weakness of Italian teacher-training, and I am sure that he pinpointed the great weakness of American teacher-training. For we are preoccupied with the minutiae of the teacher's calling to the point where we are indifferent to his need for thorough grounding in his subject matter.

Ask the personnel director of a modern mercantile or industrial concern. To his office there comes a steady stream of college graduates with impressive degrees in commerce or in business. They have been taught accounting, and salesmanship, and business law. They know something about statistics, and business cycles, and business organization and finance. But only now and then is there one who has gone deeper than the acquisition of specialized knowledge, and laid hold of the enduring values which alone constitute a genuine education.

The trouble stems from the fact that we have lost our appreciation of the value of education for its own sake, and have come to look on it only as a means to an end. We pride ourselves on being "practical," and we judge a man's education by standards that have nothing to do with it. It must increase his income, it must give him an advantage in the scramble for wealth and preferment, or it does not impress us. We have lost sight, you see, of the fact that the noblest values are those which cannot be measured by such criteria. "The fruit of the spirit is love, joy, peace, long-suffering, kindness, goodness, faithfulness, meekness, self-control." This is as true now as it was when it was written. St. Paul was not talking about education, but he might well have been, for what he says about the growth of the spirit applies as well to that of the mind: it is measured by the richness and stability of the inner life. It does not reveal itself in terms of earning-power, or even of efficiency.

You have heard people dismiss the claims of a liberal education with the statement that it is more ornamental than useful. Poor things, when they have delivered themselves of this verdict they think they have about settled the question. How are such people to suspect that knowledge has values which transcend both use and ornamentation? One prizes it, not for what he can do with it, but for

what it does to him; not for the tools it lays in his hand, but for the changes it brings about in his own capacities and ideals and standards.

All this is not to say that we should pursue learning for the sake of its introspective rewards. The day will probably never come again when the western mind will regard philosophical contemplation as the highest good. But unless learning has spiritually enriched the individual, has freed him from prejudices and awakened a profound intellectual passion, it is not education at all. We lose the spirit of true education the instant we begin to think of it as a tool for "getting ahead," and not as a value in itself. To do that is to place the economic before the aesthetic, the things of the flesh before those of the spirit.

## II

We do not know, of course, who invented the word "education." Etymologically it means a "leading out," and it was an apt description of the process to which it was originally applied. It evokes a heartening picture of the growing mind being "led out" into new fields of knowledge, into broadening horizons of power and beauty. The acid test of education is at least as old as the New Testament. "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free." It is by its *liberating* influence that the true education is distinguished from the sham; we speak of *liberal* education, *freedom* of teaching, because liberty is of the essence of education, and any form of bondage is repugnant to it. Now, I submit to you that we have distorted the word to apply to many things to which it does not belong. The W.C.T.U. speaks of an "educational" campaign when what it means is a propaganda campaign. It is by "education," so called, that Soviet youth is set in a mold of fanatical devotion to false ideals. The public is constantly being "educated" to say it with flowers, or to drink Blue Ribbon, or to see its dentist twice a year. You see how broad and hazy we make the word. By the same token, teaching a student to keep books, or to read blueprints, or to draw up lesson-plans, is useful and profitable activity, but it is not education in the true sense, for it shows a negative reaction when tested for its liberating influence. That is what I meant a moment ago when I said that we confuse training with education, and we are too often satisfied with the one as a substitute for the other. I might also have said that we are uncertain about the distinction between education and propaganda.

For the ordinary student, it is far easier to judge the value of his

education by the use he thinks he will make of it than by the growth it will bring about in his own intellectual life. Hence the emphasis upon "practical" curricula, "professional" training. Education and training, of course, are not mutually exclusive. The mind is developed by the serious study of no matter what subject, and any learning, no matter how far removed from practical affairs, is likely to have very practical and perhaps wholly unexpected applications. The difference is one, not of kind, but of degree; not of ideals, but of emphasis.

Education, to be worthy the name, must stimulate thinking. No one will quarrel with that. But it must be thinking which is sincere, untrammelled, courageous. It must concern itself with interests important enough to be worthy of it. When education fails to stimulate such thinking it loses its fundamental qualities as education. Hence liberal education, which concerns itself with developing the mind, with the larger aspects of intellectual growth, has more right to the name than has the special technical education which concerns itself with the acquisition of skills and the storing up of formulas.

"The intellectual virtues," says President Hutchins, "are habits resulting from the training of the intellectual powers. An intellect properly disciplined, an intellect properly habituated, is an intellect able to operate well in all fields. An education that consists in the cultivation of the intellectual virtues, therefore, is the most useful education, whether the student is destined for a life of contemplation or a life of action."

At this point I shall be accused of proposing that we abandon modern education for utility and go back to the old disciplines: Latin, Greek, mathematics, and philosophy. Indeed I am not. What I am proposing is the shift in emphasis which is already making itself felt, stressing the liberal education as fundamental and prerequisite to the vocational and technical. Specialized training becomes thereby the capstone of education and not its cornerstone. It complements the basic disciplines but never supplants them.

The best example of this growing movement is to be found in the schools of medicine and of law. There was a time when most such schools were open to high school graduates, with nothing said about any liberal education as a prerequisite. Little by little, as the learned professions became more crowded and their requirements more exacting, one or two or four years in a liberal arts college became a part of the preparation for the professional school. First it was

recommended, then required; and it is safe to assume that the process will continue until there will be no gateway to the learned professions save through a curriculum in the liberal arts. Schools of education are beginning to follow suit. Two- and three-year curricula leading to a teaching certificate are disappearing. The four-year degree course is no longer considered adequate; the trend is toward at least a five-year program with technical and professional training concentrated mainly in the later years. The American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, I am informed, has gone on record as favoring a five-year course in business leading to a master's degree, so that more stress may be laid during the earlier years upon education in the liberal arts.

All this is as it should be. With the growth of our mechanized civilization, leisure looms larger and larger in the picture of human living. As working hours have shortened with technological advances, leisure-time activities have ceased to be the peripheral and more or less casual concerns they once were, and have begun to take their place as one of the major compartments of modern living. The cloud that hangs now over the world will almost certainly retard the growth of this process, but it will not destroy it. Indeed, I think one hope for the destruction of the totalitarian spirit lies in the fact that the common man will not indefinitely allow himself to be robbed of the leisure and freedom which technological progress so clearly holds out to him. No one's life may be considered properly balanced until it has achieved a just proportion between work and leisure; until each has established its proper claim on his time and his energy. This being so, the technical training which prepares only for work is daily becoming more inadequate to meet present-day needs. Education is preparation for the whole of life, and not alone for earning a livelihood. It is incomplete, therefore, unless it includes fundamentals, not only for work, but for leisure; not only for competitive and material progress, but for growth in the deeper concerns of the mind and the spirit.

### III

One distinguishing trait of the American mind is its love of figures. I remember how, once in Paris, some French friends were amused because I said it would take us ten minutes to get from the restaurant to the Opera, and we could therefore spend an hour and ten minutes at dinner. They had contented themselves with the vague impression

that we had time enough; my calculations, they said, were typically American. I think that baseball has established itself as the national pastime in America partly because it lends itself so well to statistical analysis. Listen to the broadcast of any game and see how much we delight in the mass of figures and dates. The box-score of a baseball game looks like a miniature table of logarithms, and we love it.

This passion for numerical orderliness, when applied to education, has brought forth certain characteristically American devices. The degree was invented in Europe to give concrete recognition to intellectual attainment. But it took the American to develop refinements like the credit-hour for measuring the quantity of one's achievement and the honor-point for measuring its quality. As a registrar, I can by no means deplore these comparative innovations. They are ingenious and extremely useful contrivances for measuring otherwise intangible things. All of us, however, I think deplore the by-product of these inventions: the tendency to confuse the symbol with the reality; to place the emphasis upon hours and points rather than upon the intellectual accomplishments they are supposed to represent. The student who works only for grades, or the one who hunts out the easiest courses open to him, and takes them whether or not they are significant to him—these are familiar figures upon every campus.

We have a strange and often misplaced confidence in the powers of absorption and retention possessed by the average student. Once a "credit" has been recorded in the registrar's books, it belongs to the student forever, laid up for him like an account at the bank, and to be drawn upon at will. He may proceed to forget completely the substance of a course; in fact, he often does, but so long as the record shall stand it will show that he has mastered that segment of human knowledge. We have fallen into the strange error, as President Lowell says, of "measuring the amount in the mind by what has been poured into it, although we know it leaks, and have no idea how much." Now, if we are dealing with technical courses designed to supply skills and formulas, then we are not justified in assuming that a credit once earned is always valid, for skills grow rusty and formulas are forgotten or discarded. But if it is a question of evaluating education from the point of view of its total impact upon the individual, the viewpoints and attitudes inculcated, the cultivation and maturing of the mental powers, then the fallacy is no longer there, for one cannot lose the value of any knowledge which has broadened his intellectual



horizons, even though the learning itself be forgotten. Yet we doggedly ignore that very obvious distinction, and continue to judge intellectual maturity almost solely by the number of hours passed. If a student has "had" twelve hours of accounting or of industrial drawing, we are certain that he is just twice as well-qualified an accountant or a draftsman as when he had "taken" only six hours. So many hours of credit equal an education, and hence entitle the holder to a degree. It is all very like Tom Sawyer's Sunday school, wherein one earned a blue ticket by memorizing two verses of Scripture. So many blue tickets equalled a yellow one, and so many yellow ones could be exchanged for a Bible.

Often a student tells me he has such-and-such requirements to "work off" before he can be graduated. The expression used to infuriate me, until I realized that we have only ourselves to blame if he has shifted his attention from the substance to the shadow. We have overstressed our clever measuring devices. The result is that the student thinks we are interested only in seeing him clear a given number of hurdles. He is astonished when you tell him that one does not *get* an education; one *becomes* an educated person by dint of patient study and serious meditation and a tenacious search for truth.

Higher education in America has committed many blunders. It has allowed education for living to be supplanted by training for utilitarian ends. It has permitted the intrinsic values of knowledge to be overshadowed by the practical purposes which knowledge can be made to serve. It has placed the implement before the personality. It has allowed itself to appear in the false position of setting signs and symbols above the realities they are intended to represent. We are under the necessity now of atoning by once more putting first things first. The proper concern of education is the things of the intellect; to these all other concerns are secondary. This is its justification, this its soul. For in the last analysis no man, be he the hardest realist or the most positive extrovert, truly lives, as Robert Louis Stevenson says, "in the external truth among salts and acids, but in the warm, phantasmagoric chamber of his brain, with the painted windows and the storied walls."



# New England Experiments with a New Tool

## *A Progress Report of the New England Board of Higher Education*

ROBERT H. KROEPSCH

REGIONAL co-operation is relatively a new tool in the educational workshop. But even so, thirty-two states and one territory are now organized into three regions and are working with their neighboring states to solve some of the problems in higher education not easily solved by single states operating individually. In the South there has been in the past ten years enough experience to develop impressive machinery, which each year continues to prove to be efficient and effective. The Southern Regional Education Board is now dealing—not only figuratively but literally—with atomic energy and TV networks. The West, too, has become acquainted with large-scale operation and has developed interstate machinery which is solving complicated problems. The studies and projects undertaken by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education during the past four years have shown impressive results.

In New England we are now laying aside the first hand tools with which we started and are beginning to experiment successfully with more complicated devices. To demonstrate this point we are pleased to submit the products of our first full year of actual operation for examination and inspection.

### ORGANIZATION AND PURPOSE

The New England Board of Higher Education was established in 1955 under the New England Higher Education Compact. This Compact has now been adopted by the legislatures of all six states. The Board itself consists of eighteen members, three from each state appointed in accordance with its own legislation. It includes educators from public and private institutions, legislators, and lay people. The administrative costs are met by appropriations from the member states in proportion to their population. The Board also seeks funds from other sources to support its program of educational research.

The purpose of the Board is to improve and increase educational opportunities in higher education, both public and private, for the

youth of New England through the establishment and maintenance of a co-ordinated educational program. It strives to provide regional support and utilization of specialized programs and at the same time to avoid the unnecessary duplication of specialized facilities among the compacting states.

The Board has no authority or control over the member states or over any educational institution, but rather serves to improve and extend the educational opportunities for the young people in the region. It does this by gathering facts and figures; identifying problems in the field of higher education; acquainting educators, legislators, and the general public with these problems; and, with the help of consultants and specialists, recommending solutions. The Board also serves as a clearing house for information of regionally significant activities and, when necessary, serves the states and institutions as an administrative and fiscal agent for carrying out interstate agreements for educational services.

#### HIGHLIGHTS OF THE PAST YEAR

The first printed annual report lists the following specific accomplishments of the Board during the academic year 1956-1957.

1. It has developed the New England regional plan for medical and dental education. This plan is designed to encourage New England medical and dental schools to provide additional places for New England residents. Each state ratifying the plan pays \$2,500 for each medical student and \$1,500 for each dental student admitted to each school above the number admitted from that state in 1956. These payments represent somewhat less than the average difference between what a student pays in tuition and the actual cost of his instruction. Four states, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Massachusetts have adopted this plan and have appropriated the necessary funds. All six medical schools and the two dental schools in the region have agreed to participate.

2. It has studied the possibility of regional co-operation among the state universities at the undergraduate level. At the request of their presidents, the undergraduate curricula of the six New England state universities have been studied to identify unique programs of instruction which might be made available to residents of the other states as well as to locate deficiencies in offerings which might be filled through arrangements with other state universities in the region. This plan is designed to increase the number and variety of educational

opportunities for the residents of New England and to avoid where feasible the duplication of facilities for specialized high-cost programs of study. Under this plan, qualified students from other New England states will be given preferential consideration for admission to certain specialized programs, and will be granted the benefit of in-state or resident fees. Final action has now been taken by the six boards of trustees making the following number of additional programs available to the students of the several states: Connecticut 10, Maine 21, Massachusetts 20, New Hampshire 17, Rhode Island 21, and Vermont 24. Details of the program are contained in a folder published jointly by the co-operating institutions.

3. It has served as the secretariat of the New England Regional Conference. Acting jointly with the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Board sponsored the New England Regional Conference of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School and served as the secretariat. The conference which brought together 300 educators and laymen wrestled with the problems facing New England. As a result, each state has held or is planning its own conference to bring these problems to the attention of the general public at the grass-roots level. With funds made available by the President's Committee and the Carnegie Foundation, the staff undertook extensive research and published important facts and figures for all colleges in the region, the enrollment patterns of New England's students, and the expansion plans of its college presidents.

4. It has developed a proposal for a regional dental manpower survey. This study, which is now underway, is being conducted with the assistance of the U. S. Public Health Service and the American Dental Association under a grant of \$10,000 from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. Its purpose is to study the dental manpower requirements in New England—including also the need for dental hygienists, technicians, and assistants—in order to analyze the current dental needs, demands, and resources of the region, and to project these needs, demands, and resources into the future, as well as to explore their educational implications for New England. A distinguished group of New England dentists, dental educators, public health officers, legislators, and consultants will examine the findings and make recommendations to the profession, the educational institutions, the states, and regional organizations.

5. It has published newsletters and reports based on research. Ten

thousand copies of four issues of a newsletter *Higher Education in New England* have been published and distributed to key people in New England including educators, college trustees, legislators, state officers, editors, librarians, and other lay leaders to keep them informed of items of regional interest. Other publications have included an announcement brochure, *Medical and Dental Education in New England*, *Bylaws of the New England Board of Higher Education and the New England Higher Education Compact*, *Two Surveys: These Are New England's Colleges and Universities and This is Where New England Students Go To College*.

6. It has served as a regional clearing house. Upon request, information has been supplied to many local, state, and national agencies and organizations. Also stories on important matters have been released through the newspapers and over radio and TV stations.

7. Last but not least, it has welcomed Rhode Island into the Compact. On May 6, 1957, Governor Dennis J. Roberts signed the Compact and appointed three citizens to the Board, thus completing its membership.

#### IN CONCLUSION

Although short titles do not have the same fascination for academic people as they may have for those who work in military or governmental circles, there is nevertheless a tendency to refer to the three regional groups by their abbreviations—SREB, WICHE, and NEBHE. We are pleased to discover that the short title for the New England Board can be translated in Arabic as "the awakening" or "consciousness." We believe that this Arabic translation is symbolic of our function.

The past year convinces us that regional co-operation will prove to be one of New England's most effective tools for providing more and better educational opportunities for the youth of the region. The Board will tend to center its primary attention on the needs of the students in the region rather than on the needs of the institutions. These two problems are, of course, deeply interrelated, but there is a difference in emphasis. Fulfilling the needs of all of the existing institutions in a region does not ipso facto fulfill the needs of its young people. In improving opportunities in higher education for the youth of New England, NEBHE seeks to maintain and advance the high academic, social, cultural, and economic level of the area.

# A Regional Educational Television Network for University Teaching

ROBERT C. ANDERSON

## I

THE CYNICAL among us have long proclaimed, only half-facetiously, that it takes thirty years for a new idea to worm its way into American educational practice. Until recently, in our ivory towers, we could say, happily, "So what?" But with the college enrollment trend that began in the post-depression thirties, dipped with World War II and then accelerated jet-like with the G. I. Bill, levelled and then about five years ago began to climb rapidly, we face a crisis. We do not have thirty years to wait for new ideas.

Thanks to the Thompson study for the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, and succeeding studies by other national, regional, state, and institutional researchers, we know, in a general way, what to expect in the way of student demand.<sup>1</sup> In my own region, the South, we know generally that we can expect to have almost twice as many students in our colleges and universities in 1970 as we had in 1955. For at least one state in my region, Florida, Folger has projected a tripled college enrollment by 1970.<sup>2</sup>

We know, too, again generally speaking, how many, or rather how few, graduate students are preparing for the role of college teacher. With increasing federal expenditures for missile and other weapons, with new industrial emphases on the atom and its uses, and with the resulting attractions of positions in industry and government to the graduates of our institutions, we can expect the percentage of those who plan to teach to continue to decline for some years, especially in some fields.

The problem, then, is simple: twice as many students, perhaps half enough qualified teachers. The Southern Regional Education Board is merely one of many agencies which have been searching for solutions.

<sup>1</sup> Ronald B. Thompson, *College Age Population Trends, 1940-1970*. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1954.

<sup>2</sup> John K. Folger, *A Factbook on Higher Education in the South*. Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1956.

SREB's search, at least, indicates that there is no one solution. Through careful planning, at the institutional, state, and regional level, through curriculum-pruning, through interinstitutional co-operation, through better scheduling, *some* more students can be handled in our colleges without an increased faculty and without loss in the quality of instruction, *but not enough*. Through scholarship programs, increased salaries, and other incentives *some* additional graduate students can be persuaded to become college teachers, *but probably not enough*.

Higher education, then, faces two alternatives: raising the barriers at the admissions office, or accepting new ideas about the teaching and learning process. Most of us, with our American heritage of education for all who can benefit from it, look with horror upon those who would close the college doors to the great unwashed. However unhappily, we turn to the other alternative and begin to consider educational innovations.

## II

One such innovation is television. The ivory-tower educator has looked upon this medium, since its infancy, with suspicion and disdain. The television set was deplored, as the one-eyed monster of the parlor, with power to abolish the reading of books and to wipe out intelligent conversation and to set back the Culture of our world, perhaps forever. Its program fare was condemned as beneath the taste of any but the lowest lowbrow, yet its appeal to the middlebrow was recognized with fear. There are still those—we all know them—who refuse to have one of the things in the house.

But the medium gained a certain measure of respectability and a certain amount of attention from educators with the reservation of some 250 channels for noncommercial, educational television, by the Federal Communications Commission in 1952. The social action generated among educational institutions by the few who fought for the reservation of those channels, and by the many who have since joined the fight to find ways to utilize them, has had its influence on educational thought. The better programming seen on some 31 educational stations now on the air, the efforts of the Ford Foundation-supported Center for Educational Television, and a perceptible improvement in commercial telecasting at least partially traceable to the effect of educational television successes, have helped to convince



some of the nonbelievers. Many a 1952-model skeptic has been converted into a 1958-model advocate.

Emphasis, in the early years of educational television, centered on its uses as a medium for adult education, and as a medium for improving television fare for children in out-of-school hours. The creaking educational machinery into which the medium was introduced was oiled, with some degree of selectivity, by foundation funds, provided for the most part by the Fund for Adult Education. The researchers of another "independent [then] agency established by the Ford Foundation," however, recognized the potential of the medium as an in-classroom teaching aid. In the last two or three years the Fund for the Advancement of Education has used sizeable grants to stimulate and make possible research on the uses of the television set in the classroom.

Other experiments, by other agencies, including the military services, have attempted to test the validity of using television for teaching. Most of these tests have shown that, under experimental conditions, there are no significant differences in the learning of students taught "by television" and those taught by conventional classroom methods.<sup>3</sup>

This suggests, of course, that our best-qualified professors, facing cameras, can be brought into multiple classrooms via television. It suggests that their talents can be brought to bear on the task of teaching hundreds where before they taught tens.

None of the conservative researchers have suggested that the television set replace the class instructor. Rather, their research results imply that *a part* of the job of teaching can be done through the medium of television. We will still need a competent instructor in the classroom to supervise, to direct, to guide, to answer questions, to suggest reading, to advise, to evaluate. But he need not be a highly-trained specialist and teacher with long years of experience. He will, however, need new and different skills. The relatively few such specialist-teachers available to us can most effectively be used in front of the camera rather than in front of the class.

Although its costs are declining as the technology and production advance, television is still an expensive tool, as educational tools go.

<sup>3</sup>E.g., C. R. Carpenter, and L. P. Greenhill, *An Investigation of Closed-Circuit Television for Teaching University Courses*. University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1955.

Most of the experiments on teaching by television have been done, as most good research is done, without too much regard for cost. Funds for education have always been limited in the Western economy. With increasing demands upon tax sources for other services, educational funds will probably continue to be limited. If television is to be used for teaching then ways must be found to make it "economically" feasible. At least it should cost no more per student than the placing of a highly-trained specialist-teacher in each classroom *would* have cost if we were going to have enough of them to go around.

### III

In its considerations of educational television as a medium for college teaching, the Southern Regional Education Board has concluded that the medium must be used with large numbers of students if it is to be used economically. The experience of commercial radio and television certainly bears out this conclusion. That experience led to the establishment of large networks. The super-extravaganzas of commercial television, the fabulous salaries paid its performers, the perfection of its program production, would not be financially possible for any one station operating alone. It seems natural, then, to think in terms of an educational network for in-classroom teaching. It seems logical to think of the best-qualified professor teaching thousands instead of tens.

Dr. John E. Ivey, Jr., then Director of the Southern Regional Education Board, first proposed the exploration of the possibility of such a network, in the South, to the Board's Executive Committee in 1955. With that Committee's approval the SREB staff began its study of the network idea.

This exploration included analyses of all existing research reports on teaching-by-television, interviews by Dr. John K. Folger and other SREB staff members with individuals who had participated in the most careful experiments on television teaching, and investigations by legal and engineering consultants on the feasibility of an inter-institutional network. The results of these preliminary explorations were reported to the Board in 1956 and authorization for continued study was obtained.

At this point negotiations began with A. Earl Cullum, Jr., Consulting Engineers of Dallas, Texas, one of the nation's leading communications engineering consulting firms, for more specific data on the

engineering problems and costs involved in a region-wide intercampus network. And, at about this time, the Federal Communications Commission announced that, in the Spring and Summer of 1957, it would hold hearings (for the first time in ten years) on needs for microwave facilities throughout the nation. The FCC called upon all and sundry to come forth and state their needs for such channels for the next ten years.

The Commission had ruled, some years ago, that only "the common carrier" was entitled to establish microwave facilities between cities. Few exceptions have been made to this rule. The rule still stands, and will, unless the commission was convinced in the Summer of 1957 by the logic and eloquence of the testimony of hundreds of business and industrial concerns, (and by the Joint Council on Educational Television and the Southern Regional Education Board) that others should be allowed to own and operate such microwave facilities. The Commission will probably not rule on these hearings for two or three years. The existing rule simply means, for example, that you cannot construct a microwave facility to link the University of Virginia with the University of North Carolina; you can only lease that facility from the American Telephone and Telegraph Company at its published commercial rates.

An interinstitutional educational television network cannot exist without electronic links between campuses. Our technology has developed two types of such links: cable and microwave relay. Cable is, of course, wire, very expensive to buy and even more expensive to install. Microwave is "wireless," and considerably less expensive, even at common carrier rates.

With the announcement of the FCC hearings, the Southern Regional Education Board took the position that it had a responsibility to Southern higher education to testify. The Cullum firm was asked to design (on paper) a network involving microwave facilities to link together some 309 higher institutions in sixteen Southern states—almost all of the four-year colleges and universities in this region. (The region includes: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia). The firm of Krieger and Jorgensen of Washington, D.C., communications attorneys, were asked to work with the Director of the Board and with the engineers in preparing testimony

to be presented before the Commission at its hearings. Board staff members maintained liaison with JCET staff members to co-ordinate the testimony of the two organizations.

The SREB testimony presented to the FCC by the author in July, 1957, in effect argued the need for the reservation of microwave channels for interstate use by higher education. The SREB did not request the FCC to grant it permission to build such a network or even imply that it proposed to build such a network. It simply stated that the educational institutions of the region should be granted a certain freedom of choice in the matter: the choice of building facilities for interuniversity closed-circuit television, or of leasing such facilities from the common carrier, if they so desired. The "proposed" 16-state network was designed to show how, in ten years, the universities and colleges of the region might be linked together by microwave relays, and how a regional educational television network might operate if the universities and the states concerned so desired.

The testimony suggested what such a network could be expected to do, and how it might be organized and operated:

To date the potential of television for classroom instruction has been explored primarily within the context of single institutions. Commercial experience plus an examination of the resources as well as the economics of program production suggests, however, that the real potential of television—the potential to reach large audiences with carefully prepared programs presented by outstanding professors, and the potential to use to the greatest advantage instructional talent—will only be achieved within an interinstitutional context, in short, through an educational network operation. The network would be able to *improve* the quality of instruction in the following ways:

- a. It would make superior professors available to a large group of students throughout the region. It would permit salaries large enough to eliminate financial barriers to recruitment and retention of the best professors available anywhere. It would provide the superior professors with extensive resources to enable them to do the best possible job of teaching.
- b. It would provide for continuous review, evaluation, and revision of course content. The television professor would be aided in this by a committee of professors from the institutions of the region. Experimentation with improved methods of instruction would be encouraged, and the network would provide a convenient framework for experimental design.

- c. It would be possible to introduce a wide variety of demonstrations, presentations of actual events, and other teaching aids into the instructional process which cannot be done (or done economically) in conventional classroom instruction. The world could be brought into the classroom for illustrative purposes, and the network would make it possible to pay for this enriched instruction.

The network would be developed and operated as a service to the institutions of the region. It would link together all interested institutions in the region. An institution served by the network would be able to receive up to five courses simultaneously. The institution would provide the equipment and personnel to transmit the network programs into the proper classroom or classrooms, by closed circuit transmission. If the institution had a transmitter it would broadcast appropriate network courses, or it could use them all as closed circuit programs. Course telecasts could originate at any network institution which had studio facilities; in practice there would probably be many fewer originating institutions than receiving institutions. Network courses could be filmed and/or kinescoped and rebroadcast several times to meet the varied scheduling problems of participating institutions. The participating institutions would approve all of the policies for network operation and would provide the funds for its operation. The network would utilize to the maximum the existing teaching, testing, and course production facilities in the institutions of the region and would assist them to expand and improve their resources in these areas.

The testimony commented on costs of such a network, in relation to over-all capital and instructional costs:

The costs of operating the network as outlined by Mr. Cullum would be roughly 7 million dollars per year. These costs should be related to the total number of potential students, and to the costs of educating these students. At the present time there are over 700,000 students in college in the sixteen Southern states. There are about 600,000 in the colleges included in the network. At the present time southern institutions spend an average of about \$400 per student for instruction purposes. They spend a total of nearly \$1000 per student for all operating purposes. Thus the annual instructional budget of the colleges that could be linked in the network is now about 240 million dollars per year.

Within ten years there will be about 900,000 students in the institutions that could participate in the network. Even if instructional costs do not rise (which is a very unlikely assumption) we will, by 1967, be spending roughly 360 million dollars for instruction in the



institutions that could be linked together in the network. How much would the network add to this operating cost? If we assume that the network will provide 50 courses for each of two semesters and 25 courses for the summer program, this will mean a total of 125 courses per calendar year. If we allow \$100,000 per course for planning, teaching, and production expenses (and experience to date with course programming suggests that this is a generous allowance) this will involve a total expenditure for the courses of \$12,500,000 which when added to the \$7,000,000 for network operating expenses is about \$19,500,000. If we add \$10,000 per year per campus for operation of the campus distribution system for channeling the network courses into classrooms, then our total operating expenses will be in the neighborhood of \$22,500,000, which will be about only 6 per cent of the region's operating expenditures for instruction. Another way of computing the costs of instruction is in terms of costs per student semester hour. The 900,000 students expected in 1967 will probably take about 24 million semester hours of work per year. If only a third of this instruction is provided over television, 8 million semester hours will be provided (at least in part) over television, this would make the cost per student semester hour about \$2.80. This added cost can be compared with the current instruction costs of \$12-\$18 per student semester hour in some of the larger institutions of the region. The television costs might be offset in part by savings in classroom instructor time in the courses using television, but no accurate estimates of these savings are possible at the present time.

The capital outlay costs are large, but when viewed in perspective of what will be expended for higher educational facilities in the region over the next ten years, they appear to be manageable. Even if the colleges of the South continue to spend at the present rate (which is inadequate to meet the needs for new facilities) they will expend about 2 billion dollars for capital outlay in the next decade. The cost of the network would be no more than 10 per cent of this.

Comments were made in the testimony on the educational focus of the network:

In network programming, the course would be the basic unit for planning and preparation of programs. Each course to be prepared for network presentation would be analyzed to see what parts of it were appropriate for television presentation. Television appears especially useful in the presentation of information. Because it can go outside the classroom walls and can spend more money per course, it has a tremendous potential advantage over the conventional lecture in



the presentation of information. The course material suitable for television would probably vary from nearly all of it in some courses down to a half or less in other courses. Some courses would not be suitable at all for television presentation. However, the whole course would be regarded as a unit for planning purposes, even though only part of it was telecast. Each course would have an outline and syllabus covering both the television and non-television parts of the course.

The instruction using telecasts would not be regarded as something apart from regular instruction, but would simply be another way of teaching some courses. The use of television courses by an institution would introduce a new dimension into their course planning and co-ordination. Courses using telecasts would be planned co-operatively by professors from the participating institutions. They would be produced at institutions with television professors who might come from still other institutions. The participating institutions would have the responsibility for the non-television parts of the course, for grading students, and assigning credit for the course. They would need to fit the courses using television into their sequence of courses in a certain subject matter area to prevent overlapping and duplication. In all courses using telecasts emphasis would be placed on the development of an instructional team made up of the television professor and the classroom professor, with testing specialists, television production specialists, and other specialists available as needed. In addition to courses, the network could also carry special programs, such as musical, dramatic, or art shows which could be shown as a part of a course or as additional enrichment programs.

In summary, establishment of the network would allow institutions to deal with some of the crucial problems facing higher education today. These problems of shortages of faculty and possible impairments to the quality of education have been documented in a number of national as well as regional studies. We have three alternatives: (1) we must make better use of the teaching resources we have; (2) we must deny higher education to a substantial proportion of those who will seek it; or (3) the quality of education provided will decline. No nation with world responsibilities and need for a large number of educated specialists in many fields can afford either of the last two alternatives.

#### IV

Such a network is, indeed, a new idea in education. It is one of those ideas which, if it is to be most helpful, cannot wait for thirty years. Realizing this, and being practiced in the art of speeding up the

process of educational advancement, President O. C. Aderhold of the University of Georgia offered his help in the next step in the network exploration process. At his invitation, representatives of the Board met with the Presidents (or their representatives) of seven institutions in Georgia, Alabama, and Florida in August, 1957, to consider a possible tristate pilot network project. These seven institutions, the Universities of Alabama, Florida, and Georgia, Georgia Institute of Technology, Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Auburn), and Emory and Florida State Universities, are now engaged in studies of the feasibility of such a pilot project.

Three committees, each composed of representatives of the seven institutions, are studying various aspects of the proposed project. The framework upon which their study is based is one which would, it is to be hoped, yield some answers to the multitude of questions surrounding the possible regional network. One committee, composed of academic deans or deans of instruction, is considering the academic problems involved in such interinstitutional co-operation. Another committee, of campus television engineers, has already submitted a favorable report on the engineering possibilities and costs of the tristate network. A third committee, of television program personnel, is concerned with production problems and possibilities. Engineers on each campus are studying "local distribution" systems and costs.

The three states have a "head start." Alabama has operated, for several years, the only statewide, publicly-supported educational telecast network in the nation. Georgia has an educational television station on the air, in Atlanta, and a construction permit for a station at the University, where studio facilities and equipment are already in operation in the Center for Continuing Education. And Florida's legislature in 1957 became the first in the nation to appropriate funds for a statewide closed-circuit educational television network to link its colleges and universities.

No venture of the magnitude of the "proposed" regional network can hope to succeed without the informed and active support of the educational forces of the region. It is the belief of the SREB that a tristate pilot project, if successful, would lead to such support, in the South. Teaching by television is a new idea. We hope to find out whether or not it is a good one—in something less than thirty years.

# Student Explanations of College Choice and Their Relation to College Popularity, College Productivity, and Sex Differences\*

JOHN L. HOLLAND

ALTHOUGH the selection of an undergraduate college by entering students has been rarely investigated in any systematic way, it is a decision and problem about which most parents, counselors, teachers, and students typically have marked opinions and many theories. The present report is a preliminary study of the college selection process through the verbal reports or explanations of college choice for a sample of high aptitude high school seniors obtained in the execution of the National Merit Scholarship program.

Specifically, this study is designed to provide a first approximation to the following questions: (1) What are the most common ways of selecting a college? (2) Do men and women differ in what they look for in a college? (3) Do students selecting "popular" colleges want different benefits than do students selecting "unpopular" colleges? (4) What explanations of choice are given by students selecting institutions with high indices of scientific productivity as opposed to students selecting institutions with low indices?

The samples employed in the following analyses were obtained from 7500 Finalists in the 1957 National Merit Scholarship program in which 162,000 high school seniors participated. Their average scholastic ability estimated from the Scholastic Aptitude Test, places them in the top 5 per cent of the high school population. Their replies to the question, "Why have you selected ——— college?" form the data classified in the following sections.

## REASONS FOR COLLEGE CHOICE

In Table I, the student explanations of college choice for about an 11 per cent random sample of 7500 Finalists, or 814 high school seniors, are classified by sex. The distributions of response have been converted to percentages of total students and since the average stu-

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dent made 2 to 3 responses, the total distribution adds to more than 100 per cent.

The reliability of the categorization in Table I and subsequent tables was estimated by having two graduate student judges classify student responses independently. The discrepancies between the two judges in coding verbal reports range from .4 to 6.6 percentage points.

A review of Table I reveals moderate similarity between the explanations of college choice reported by men and women. Both

TABLE I  
VERBAL EXPLANATIONS OF COLLEGE CHOICE BY MALES AND FEMALES

Reasons for College Choice	Men (N=544)	Women (N=270)	Sig. Diff. P
Good college	52.9	47.4	<.05
Close to home	18.0	11.1	<.05
Low cost	5.5	6.7	
Academic standing	16.2	29.3	<.001
Small size	10.7	16.7	<.05
Recommended by friends	16.5	11.9	
Good faculty	9.7	7.8	
Prestige of college	4.9	5.2	
Desirable location	13.8	11.9	
Religious affiliation	6.3	12.2	<.01
Physical facilities	8.3	1.9	<.001
Research reputation	.1	.4	
Liberal Arts orientation	10.5	10.7	
Coeducational	.01	4.8	<.001
Miscellaneous	19.5	31.5	

groups, 53 and 47 per cent respectively, select colleges because they believe their choice to be "the best college," or one which has "a good school or department" in which the student plans to study. Generally these statements appear to be opinions based on institutional evaluations acquired from other students and significant adults in the student's life. These choices are usually not defended by citing how institutions satisfy criteria of eminence, etc., but rather institutions are cited as meeting special personal needs and situational problems. This interpretation is supported by sizable related categories such as "recommended by others, prestige of college."

All other explanations and rationalizations of choice are reported in lesser percentages. Both sexes rank "academic standing" and a college "close to home" as highly desirable. Both sexes place little

weight on such factors as the "research reputation, coeducational status, cost, or physical facilities" of their college choice.

Along with these similarities there are a number of marked sex differences. Typically, men want to attend colleges which are "close to home, and have good physical facilities." Women are correspondingly less concerned about these factors. Instead, women want more frequently colleges of "academic standing, small size, religious affiliation, and coeducational status." All of these differences are statistically significant.

Only a limited number of interpretations of this evidence appear clear and relatively self-evident. First, students appear to select colleges largely by reputation and apparently with limited explicit information. Second, academic factors such as academic accreditation or standing and the faculty reputation play a moderate secondary role. Third, practical and financial factors appear as a substantial force in selection—"convenience or close to home." Fourth, the selection of colleges by the different sexes reveals a number of divergent factors despite some basic similarities.

#### DEGREE OF COLLEGE POPULARITY AND STUDENT EXPLANATIONS OF CHOICE

To explore the meaning of "more" and "less" popular college choices, the data in Table I were reanalyzed by sorting students into those selecting "more popular" and "less popular" colleges. In this way new distributions of college choice explanations were established. See Table II. The nineteen colleges attended most frequently by Certificate of Merit Winners and Merit Scholars in 1956 were employed as a criterion of popularity since this criterion was based on a comparable group of students. One could also employ smaller or larger lists. The present criterion is employed here because it divides the present sample into about equal groups. Those "popular" colleges include the following institutions.

##### *For Men*

California, University of  
California Institute of Technol-  
ogy  
Chicago, University of  
Columbia University

Cornell University  
Dartmouth College  
Duke University  
Georgia Institute of Technology  
Harvard University  
Iowa State College

Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Chicago, University of
Michigan, University of	Colorado, University of
Notre Dame University	Cornell University
Princeton University	Duke University
Purdue University	Grinnell College
Rice Institute	Indiana, University of
Stanford University	Michigan, University of
Wisconsin, University of	Mount Holyoke College
Yale University	Oberlin College
	Radcliffe College
	Smith College
	Stanford University
	Swarthmore College
	Washington University
	Wellesley College
	Wisconsin, University of

*For Women*

Barnard College  
Bryn Mawr College  
Carleton College

The re-examination of college choice by classifying choices in terms of popularity reveals some interesting differences between "more popular" and "less popular" choices. Men selecting "more popular" colleges are characterized by their desire for an institution with "academic standing, good faculty, prestige, physical facilities

TABLE II  
VERBAL EXPLANATIONS OF COLLEGE CHOICE FOR STUDENTS SELECTING  
"MORE POPULAR" AND "LESS POPULAR" COLLEGES

Reasons for College Choice	Males		Sig. Diff. P	Females		Sig. Diff. P
	(N=288) More Pop.	(N=256) Less Pop.		(N=111) More Pop.	(N=159) Less Pop.	
Good college	54.3	55.9		44.6	48.8	
Close to home	10.6	25.3	<.001	4.5	19.4	<.001
Low cost	2.4	8.4	<.01	3.6	10.6	<.05
Academic standing	24.6	11.9	<.001	43.8	20.0	<.001
Small size	5.1	15.7	<.001	17.9	24.4	
Recommended by others	15.0	17.6		8.9	12.5	
Good faculty	13.3	5.7	<.01	13.4	5.0	<.05
Prestige of college	3.4	.8	<.05	.9	1.9	
Desirable location	8.9	11.1		14.3	8.1	
Religious affiliation	1.7	8.8	<.001	.0	22.5	<.001
Physical facilities	8.9	4.2	<.05	3.6	3.8	
Research reputation	1.0	.0		.0	.0	
Liberal arts orientation	14.9	9.4	<.05	17.9	6.9	<.01
Coeducational	.3	.4		7.1	3.8	
Miscellaneous	20.2	16.5		25.9	23.7	



and a liberal arts orientation." In contrast, men selecting "less popular" institutions are characterized by their need for a college which is "close to home, of low cost, small size, and has a religious affiliation." The differences for females reveal similar trends with the following exception. Women selecting "popular" institutions are more concerned about attending a "coeducational institution" than are women selecting "less popular" colleges.

The trends common to both sexes imply that the choice of a "more popular" institution reflects a greater concern with academic status ("academic standing and good faculty") and a liberal arts orientation experience. The selection of a "less popular" institution reveals a cluster of explanations which appear to be a function of lower student socio-economic status. These include being "close to home and low cost." The meaning of the preferences of this group for institutions with "religious affiliation" and of "small size" appears ambiguous.

The findings in Table II are of interest since a previous report (1) reveals that "there is a moderate relationship between the degree of 'popularity' which one's college enjoys and the degree of 'satisfaction' a student reports in attending such an institution and the converse." More concretely, students appear happier with colleges where most students tend to go and more dissatisfied with colleges where relatively few attend.

#### STUDENT COLLEGE CHOICE AND INDICES OF SCIENTIFIC PRODUCTIVITY

In 1952, Knapp and Goodrich reported that a select set of fifty colleges and universities are more productive of men who are later listed in *American Men of Science* (2). This group of institutions for the period 1924 to 1934 is characterized by small size, liberal arts orientation, and geographical location—Middle and Far West. In a recent study (2) the verbal explanations of all students selecting these 50 institutions with high indices of productivity were contrasted with an equal random sample of students selecting institutions with low indices. The latter study reveals that greater proportions of bright students with scientific goals attend institutions with high indices and the converse. The comparisons reproduced in Table III should be reinterpreted then in light of this evidence.

For males, the statistically significant differences in Table III reveal

TABLE III

VERBAL EXPLANATIONS OF COLLEGE CHOICE FOR STUDENTS SELECTING INSTITUTIONS WITH  
"HIGH" AND "LOW" INDICES OF SCIENTIFIC PRODUCTIVITY

Reasons for College Choice	Males		Sig. Diff. P	Females		Sig. Diff. P
	(N=1088) H.P.	L.P.		(N=540) H.P.	L.P.	
Good college	47.9	55.1	<.05	35.6	45.6	<.05
Close to home	14.3	18.4	<.07	12.9	10.0	
Low cost	3.9	5.5		2.9	5.9	
Academic standing	20.6	15.6	<.05	33.3	27.4	
Small size	27.9	8.5	<.001	38.5	15.2	<.001
Recommended by friends	15.1	15.8		12.6	11.5	
Good faculty	10.3	8.6		4.1	6.7	
Prestige of college	6.3	5.1		.0	5.2	<.001
Desirable location	9.9	13.6	<.06	9.6	10.7	
Religious affiliation	4.2	6.3		8.9	11.1	
Physical facilities	6.8	8.1		.7	1.9	
Research reputation	2.0	.2	<.01	.4	.4	
Liberal arts orientation	17.1	11.2	<.01	22.2	10.0	<.001
Miscellaneous	25.2	18.6		15.9	29.6	

that a college of "academic standing, small size, research reputation, or liberal arts orientation" is desired more frequently by students selecting institutions with high indices of productivity. Students choosing institutions with low indices are less concerned with these qualities and are more concerned with attending a "good college, one close to home, or in a desirable location."

The differences for females form a similar pattern. Women selecting "high productive" colleges prefer a college of "small size," and a "liberal arts orientation." Among women selecting a college with a low index, these qualities are less valued and attending a "good college," one of "prestige" is held more valuable.

To interpret, the selection of institutions with high indices may represent needs for a small social group or organization and a broad, intellectually oriented, educational experience. In contrast, the selection of institutions with low indices appears to reflect confidence in living in a large social group, and a more external, perhaps practical orientation including "prestige, a good college."

#### DISCUSSION

A number of cautions are appropriate with regard to the evidence reviewed here. First, the results apply only to a group of high

scholastic aptitude students and may or may not be generalized for high school seniors of lesser ability. Second, the degree of representativeness of the 1957 Finalist group is probably biased. Students from rural areas and small schools tend to be excluded from this sample. Third, student accounts of college choice probably contain explanations which tend to be socially acceptable, and only those explanations which are accessible to the student in the sense that the student is aware of his total decision-making process.

This exploratory study suggests a number of variables which appear to be significant in the selection of undergraduate colleges and which may serve as useful variables in subsequent research with more representative samples of college students. Promising variables include sex differences, socio-economic status, collegiate religious affiliations, and academic status. The latter variable implies that colleges, like the various occupations, may form a relatively stable, status hierarchy based on academic accreditation and faculty, along with a cluster of perhaps less relevant characteristics. In addition, the present analysis suggests that different institutions attract different kinds of students, or personalities; that is, the various explanations of choice imply divergent personal needs and values. For example, note the differential emphasis placed on "religious affiliation" for men versus women, between students selecting "more popular" versus "less popular" colleges, or the emphasis on college size, academic standing, and prestige.

The present study highlights the need for more adequate criteria for evaluating colleges and the student need for more counseling information about colleges. Students appear to make choices in the same way that consumers often, if not usually, buy household goods; they select colleges by means of vague notions about reputation and values which they seldom can document meaningfully. On the other hand, this interpretation leads to a related problem—How can colleges be evaluated so that student needs and expectations can be met in some meaningful way? Accreditation, for example, is useful only when the decision is between an accredited and an unaccredited institution; but the majority of students appear to be faced with decisions among accredited institutions. In a similar vein, the untutored way in which students appear to select colleges may seem disconcerting to some, but it is difficult to suggest and document other criteria which are more meaningful and reliable.

## SUMMARY

The selection of undergraduate colleges by a sample of high scholastic aptitude high school seniors appears related to such factors as institutional status, size, location, religious affiliation, liberal arts orientation, coeducational status, and popularity; and student socioeconomic status, sex differences, and personal needs. The student need for more information about colleges and especially more adequate criteria for evaluating colleges has been indicated.

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## Who Is Honorably Dismissed?

ABRAHAM S. GOODHARTZ

THE TRANSCRIPTS of records of students in American colleges and universities almost invariably carry some such legend as "Entitled to Honorable Dismissal" or "Honorable Dismissal Granted." Each year countless numbers of such transcripts are routed to admissions offices, government agencies, personnel offices, and individuals in behalf of students seeking entrance into another college or professional school, or desiring certification by a professional agency, or applying for jobs in private industry or government. In each case the transcript will normally carry the statement of honorable dismissal, except, of course, where the issuing institution specifically denies such a privilege to a student. But, one may rightfully ask, what does the term "honorable dismissal" mean? Does it mean the same thing to all who are charged with the responsibility of evaluating a student's record?

In general, it may be said, the term has a common meaning. Even if it does not attribute specific virtues to the student, it undoubtedly, at the very least, implies an absence of major sin. But specific degrees of either academic or personal virtue or sin are almost never revealed by the phrase "Granted an Honorable Dismissal." Each institution apparently sets its own semantic limits for this statement, leaving to the receiving institution the necessity for interpreting the precise meaning.

In most cases, the routine ones, it is quite safe, of course, to accept the term at its face value, whatever that may be. The assumption here is that such students are reasonably safe risks, that the college admissions officer need not fear the possibility of any upheaval on the campus from the presence of such a student, that the morals of the rest of the student body will not be tainted, and so forth. But, while it is safe and, perhaps, even proper, to process the routine cases in an off-hand manner, it is pertinent to ask which, in the light of the general lack of precise meaning of the term, are the routine cases and which the ones that require special scrutiny?

Sometimes, it is true, an institution will issue a transcript for a student with a statement of honorable dismissal, but will also include

a letter from the dean calling attention to some infraction of a college rule or some other evidence of questionable behavior. If such is the case, astonishment is added to confusion. If a student is being dismissed for misbehavior, let us say, is he entitled to an honorable dismissal? Which brings us back to our original question: what does the term "honorable dismissal" mean?

In some institutions, the term is conceived to mean simply that the student has cleared all his accounts with the college—tuition, laboratory and library fees, loan fund obligations, etc. Often the transcript is issued by the registrar's office without any reference to records which may be on file in the dean's office. In other words, in the absence of any express warrant from the dean's office, the registrar will automatically grant an honorable dismissal for any student who applies for a transcript.

It thus happens, not infrequently, unfortunately, that a student with a pattern of behavior that prompts a dean to ask him to withdraw from the college, nevertheless presents his credentials to another institution with the statement blandly spread across the transcript, "Entitled to honorable dismissal." Such a situation does not, of course, necessarily mean that the dean is deliberately trying to conceal from the other institution the applicant's propensity for mischief. It is true, however, that in some cases the dean or some other college officer may feel, out of a sense of misplaced sentiment, that the revelation of a minor or serious infraction of a college regulation or personal misconduct will forever jeopardize the applicant's chances elsewhere. The attitude may be, "Let the other college find out for itself."

This raises, of course, a question of personal and institutional ethics. To what extent, if any, is an institution or college administrator obligated to inform another institution or college administrator of the student's conduct? The answer, it would seem, lies in the recognition of the fact that if a student's behavior is such as to merit a request for withdrawal from an institution, there is, first, a presumption—although not necessarily a likelihood—that there may be a repetition of the behavior; and, second, that if the student succeeds in gaining admission to another college without any revelation of his misconduct to the new institution, he is burdened, if he is a person of integrity, with a subconscious sense of this concealment and, if he is something less than a person of integrity, shares



with his previous institution an awareness that he has succeeded in putting one over on the new dean or director of admissions.

Admittedly, the possibility always exists that revelation will be followed by damnation, and, in some cases, the end of a college career. Conceivably, in some instances, such an outcome may coincide with the highest concepts of justice. But let it be said that denial of admission to another college is not the inevitable and inescapable penalty. Most college officers would be inclined to deal with the applicant in terms of his own best interests and those of the college to which he seeks admission. What is irrefutable, it would seem, is the fact that any college officer issuing a transcript has an inherent and irrevocable obligation to alert another institution where questions of morality, ethics, and safety of other students are involved. The admitting officer, on the other hand, has the right to know whom he is admitting.

A statement of honorable dismissal must mean to anyone presented with a document carrying this legend that the student whom it represents is a person of integrity and sound character. A director of admissions receiving such a statement should feel safe in assuming that he is admitting a student who in terms of his past conduct at least is a sound risk for inclusion in the student body. A universal acceptance of a more precise meaning of the term "honorable dismissal" has always been desirable. With the greater numbers of students coming to our campuses—as new students and transfer students—this exactness of meaning is imperative.

## Some Considerations in the Determination of Graduation Time in Selected Colleges of the University of Minnesota

WILLARD O. STIBAL

THE LENGTH of time required to successful graduation is important to the individual student for purposes of his vocational planning, as well as to parents and agencies giving financial support to students or to student scholarships. An earlier study at the University of Minnesota showed considerable variation in graduation time among students;<sup>1</sup> and it is proposed in this study to compare the actual graduation time of 1956 graduates with the findings of graduation interval for students graduating (mostly World War II veterans) in 1951. Some other questions include how long a period graduating transfer students from other schools spent at the University and how changes in a student's major curriculum (within the University) might affect graduation time. Because graduation time was affected by the academic competencies of students in terms of grade-point average, this aspect affecting graduation was observed.<sup>2</sup> Also, it was deemed valuable to compare variations and average length of graduation time in the various college divisions of the University.

*General procedure.* The June, 1956, graduates were used as the group for study.<sup>3</sup> For purposes of comparison with the earlier study, it was decided to include the same seven four-year undergraduate colleges of the University as previously included. In the Institute of Technology separate calculations were made for the four-year curriculum and for the five-year curriculum.

As followed in the previous study, two different procedures were used with each student in the sample to compute the time required for student graduation. First, using the "time-elapsed" (or time-interval) procedure for the 1956 spring quarter graduates, the four-

<sup>1</sup> Willard O. Stibal, "A Comparison of Two Different Methods of Calculating the Length of Time Required for Student Graduation in Selected Colleges at the University of Minnesota," *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, 28:251-262, Jan. 1953.

<sup>2</sup> See Table VI.

<sup>3</sup> Recognition should be given to the Office of Admissions and Records, University of Minnesota, for the facilities accorded in the completion of this study.

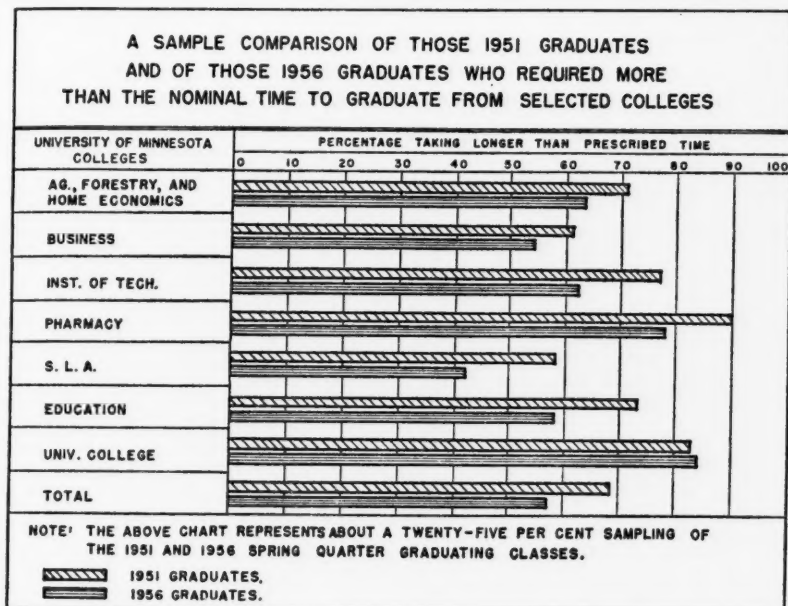


FIG. I. SOME COMPARABLE DATA DERIVED BY THE QUARTER-COUNT METHOD.

year normal time span begins with the fall quarter, 1952. Any graduate registering before this time, regardless of enrollment status within the interval, is treated as taking longer than the expected four years. In this simple procedure, summer school also is disregarded except for the first summer in cases where the student initially registered as a summer registrant. In other words, three quarters of registration are assigned to the student for each year since the individual's initial matriculation at the University.

In the second "quarter-count" procedure, the actual academic quarters of registration were considered regardless of the time interval of the quarters of registration. Adjustment is made for registration during summer school, for the absence of student registration during any quarter, and for advanced standing transfer credits. Thus, twelve full quarters of actual registration is considered as the expected or nominal time for the completion of the four-year curriculum.

*Treatment of advanced standing credit.* For the sample used, 41 per cent were transfer students admitted to the University with advanced standing credits from other institutions. In the first "time-

TABLE I  
THE LENGTH OF GRADUATION TIME FOR STUDENTS AS CALCULATED  
BY USING TWO DIFFERENT METHODS

Selected Colleges of the University of Minnesota	Number of Students in Sample (1)	Number Graduating in Less than Nominal Time (2)		Number Graduating in Nominal Time (3)		Number Graduating in More than Nominal Time (4)	
		(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
		Time-Interval Calculation	Quarter-Count Calculation	Time-Interval Calculation	Quarter-Count Calculation	Time-Interval Calculation	Quarter-Count Calculation
Agriculture	32	8	3	17	9	7	20
Business Administration	50	15	6	15	17	20	27
Institute of Technology							
(a) B.S.	10	4	—	6	4	—	6
(b) B.E.	59	22	3	17	18	20	38
University College	13	2	—	6	2	5	11
Pharmacy	9	2	—	3	2	4	7
S.L.A.	90	36	11	29	41	25	38
Education	98	36	6	31	35	31	57
Total	361	125	29	124	128	112	204

The time-interval calculation is made by counting three quarters (or a proportional number considering less or more registration than three quarters since the student's first registration period at the University of Minnesota) in each year.

The quarter-count method involves the actual number of registration quarters to the time of graduation; and, for transfer students, the transfer credit divided by an expected number of sixteen credits per quarter for a full load of work. This latter procedure interpolates transfer credits to the form of registration quarters.

elapsed" method, advanced standing credit was disregarded just as summer school registration (after the first quarter) was disregarded.

However, the second "quarter-count" method made a consideration of advanced standing credit as well as interruptions in training and summer school attendance. Transfer credits from outside the University were interpolated into the form of quarters by using a 16-credit base. Military experience credit was treated in a like manner but test result credits from the University or military service were disregarded.

*Sampling procedures.* A random sampling<sup>4</sup> of about 25 per cent

<sup>4</sup> Ronald A. Fisher and Frank Yates, *Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research*. London, England: Olive and Boyd, 1948, pp. 104-109.

TABLE II  
A PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF THE TWO METHODS OF  
CALCULATING TIME FOR GRADUATION\*

Selected Colleges of the University of Minnesota	The Percentages of Graduates Completing Programs in:					
	Either Less than Four Years or than Nominal Graduation Time		Four Years (12 Quarters) or other Nominal** Graduation Time		Either More than Four Years or than Nominal Graduation Time	
	(1)		(2)		(3)	
	(a) Time-Interval Calculation	(b) Quarter-Count Calculation	(a) Time-Interval Calculation	(b) Quarter-Count Calculation	(a) Time-Interval Calculation	(b) Quarter-Count Calculation
	Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent	
Agriculture	21.8	9.4	53.1	28.1	21.8	62.5
Business Administration	30.0	12.0	30.0	34.0	40.0	54.0
** Institute of Technology						
(a) B.S.	40.0	—	60.0	40.0	—	60.0
(b) B.E.	37.3	5.1	28.8	30.5	33.8	64.4
University College	15.4	—	46.2	15.4	38.5	84.6
Pharmacy	22.2	—	33.3	22.0	44.4	78.0
S.L.A.	40.0	12.2	32.2	45.5	27.7	42.2
Education	36.7	6.1	31.6	35.7	31.6	58.2
Total	34.6	8.0	34.35	35.5	31.0	56.5

\* The above percentages were calculated from data presented in Table I. The total sample size was used as the base of the calculation.

\*\* The Bachelor of Science Degree is a four-year degree and the Bachelor of Engineering is a five-year degree with designation of the engineering field. This adjustment for the 12 and the 15 quarters, respectively, was made in the calculation.

of the June, 1956, graduates of the seven colleges was used to draw inferences about the over-all (population) graduates taking longer than the expected time to graduate; but the six following tables include additional cases amounting to all graduates in the small University College.

*Statistical treatment of the data.* Other than for the University College graduates (relatively small enrollment), the data presented in the tables are for the sample under study rather than for all the graduates of the 1956 spring quarter.

It was desirable to estimate the percentages of the entire graduating class who required more time to graduate than the nominal time stated in the college bulletins. This was accomplished by reducing the sampling in University College only, thus to achieve a random-

TABLE III  
NUMBER OF TRANSFER AND NONTRANSFER STUDENTS GRADUATING IN THE  
VARIOUS INTERVALS USING THE QUARTER-COUNT METHOD

Selected Colleges of the University of Minnesota	Less than Four Years or the Nominal Time (1)		Four (12 Quarters) or Nominal Graduation Time (2)		More than Four Years or Nominal Graduation Time (3)	
	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
	Transfer	Nontransfer	Transfer	Nontransfer	Transfer	Nontransfer
Agriculture	1	2	2	7	7	13
Business Administration	3	3	6	11	14	13
Institute of Technology						
(a) B.S.	—	—	1	3	3	3
(b) B.E.	3	0	3	15	17	21
University College	—	—	1	1	3	8
Pharmacy	—	—	—	2	4	3
S.L.A.	7	4	18	23	15	23
Education	5	1	15	20	20	37
Total	19	10	46	82	83	121

Transfer students include only those from schools outside the University of Minnesota. Those students who registered in more than one college or division, but only at the University of Minnesota, were considered as nontransfer or regular students.

ized stratified proportional sampling in the ratio to the number of total graduates in each respective college division.

Using this smaller but proportional sample of 352 graduating students in 1956, 55.4 per cent took longer for graduation than the stated time by the quarter-count method and 30.8 per cent took longer by the time-interval method. It was found that either percentage may vary by about 5 percentage points at the 99 per cent level of confidence.

The relative and comparable percentages for the 1951 graduates were 69 per cent by the quarter-count method and 27 per cent by the time-interval procedure. Comparing the lengths of graduation for the two periods, we find no significant difference using the time-elapsd method but a significant difference if calculated by the quarter-count method.

*Conclusions.* In other words, it would seem that the students of the 1956 Spring Quarter graduating class spent less time in actual registration quarters to graduation than the graduating class of Spring, 1951.



TABLE IV

A PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF GRADUATION TIME BY COLLEGES FOR TRANSFER AND  
NONTRANSFER STUDENTS AS CALCULATED BY THE QUARTER-COUNT METHOD

Selected Colleges	Percentage Graduating in Less Than Nominal Time (1)		Percentage Graduating in Nominal Time (2)		Percentage Graduating in More Than Nominal Time (3)	
	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)	(a)	(b)
	Transfer	Nontransfer	Transfer	Nontransfer	Transfer	Nontransfer
	Per Cent		Per Cent		Per Cent	
Agriculture	31.0	6.2	6.2	21.8	21.9	40.6
Business Administration	6.0	6.0	12.0	22.0	28.0	26.0
Institute of Technology						
(a) B.S.	—	—	10.0	30.0	30.0	30.0
(b) B.E.	7.9	—	7.9	39.4	44.7	55.3
University College	—	—	7.7	7.7	23.1	61.5
Pharmacy	—	—	—	22.0	44.0	33.0
S.L.A.	7.8	4.4	20.0	25.5	16.7	25.5
Education	5.1	1.0	15.3	20.4	20.4	37.8
Total Sample	5.3	2.8	12.7	22.7	22.9	33.5

The above percentages are calculated from the data presented in Table III.

However, the earlier 1951 graduating class perhaps tended to have less interruptions in their training or made a greater utilization of summer school offerings. This inference is based on the "significant difference" between the two groups in actual quarters spent at the University but the "no significant difference" in the interval of time. A possible reason for a greater use of summer school by the 1951 graduates was the need for continuous subsistence allowance for veterans under the Veterans Administration training laws.

In 1951, slightly over one-half of those sampled (458 students) were transfer students whereas the 1956 sample found only forty-one per cent as transfer students. Surprisingly enough, the number of quarters required for the eventual graduation of the transfer students, allowing consideration for advanced standing transfer credit, was considerably less than for the graduation of the regular students who matriculated only at the University. Also, even though fewer students in the sample were transfers, honor students were almost equally divided among the transfers and the nontransfers.

In addition to transfers from outside the University, students

TABLE V  
THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF GRADUATION TIME IN THE COLLEGE  
(BY ACADEMIC TERMS) FOR THE QUARTER-COUNT METHOD

Selected Colleges of the University (1)	Mean Number of Quarters (2)	Standard Deviations in Quarters (3)
Agriculture	12.64	1.37
Business Administration	13.13	2.01
Institute of Technology		
(a) B.S.	12.85	1.55
(b) B.E.	17.00	1.74
University College	13.3	0.97
Pharmacy	15.22	2.00
S.L.A.	12.93	1.87
Education	13.59	2.46

The above indications of central tendency and of variation are for the sample only. The data for the quarters of registration were determined by the quarter-count method.

within the institution frequently change from one college to another as well as change their major curricula within a specific college. For example, in addition to 40 transfers from outside the University, and disregarding the nursing curriculum for nursing education majors, 24 of the Education graduates in the total sample of 98 graduates, moved from other colleges or divisions of the University

TABLE VI  
NUMBER OF TRANSFER AND NONTRANSFER STUDENTS GRADUATING WITH  
SOME KIND OF SCHOLASTIC HONORS\*

(1) Selected Colleges of the University	(2) Total Transfers in Sample	(3) Total Nontransfers in Sample	(4) Transfer Honor Students	(5) Nontransfer Honor Students
Agriculture	10	22	3	5
Business Administration	23	27	3	6
Institute of Technology				
(a) B.S.**	4	6	4	6
(b) B.E.	23	36	5	5
University College	4	9	0	2
Pharmacy	4	5	—	—
S.L.A.	40	50	9	7
Education	40	58	11	6
	—	—	—	—
Total	148	213	35	37

\* The above included only those honor students found among the sample group under study.

\*\* All graduates receiving Bachelor of Science in Engineering were honor students.

to the College of Education. On the other hand, the Institute of Technology showed few transfers (only four in the total sample of 67) from other colleges and the few transfers that did come from the other colleges were taking programs somewhat related to engineering in Business School, and in the College of Science, Literature and the Arts. Within the Institute, ten people, of the 59 in the sample receiving Bachelor of Engineering degrees, changed their major curriculum at least once; however, none of the ten honor students receiving Bachelor of Science Degrees in Engineering changed their major curriculum.

Referring to Table V, the highest average graduation time for the colleges, in relationship to the expected time, is in the College of Pharmacy, the Bachelor of Engineering degree (in the Institute), and the College of Education. The greatest variation among graduates is found in the College of Education and in the School of Business. The large number of transfers into the College of Education is probably one of the major reasons for a longer graduation period and for considerable variation of graduation time among the Education students.

Studies of time for graduation open up possible avenues of investigation for other problems in connection with the academic progress of students. Such internal studies in colleges and universities carry some kinds of implication for the further study of admissions procedures, curriculum planning, and counseling facilities.

## Changing Patterns in Classroom Utilization

EDWARD VERNON PERKINS

IN SOME colleges and universities where increasing enrollments demand the maximum of room utilization there probably exists a reservoir of unused classrooms during the school week. At Highland Park Junior College the initial attempt to alleviate the problem involved a few lecture classes which were to meet one day out of three in a different room instead of meeting in the same room for each of the three days a week. The resultant schedule for these classes was similar to that of courses having laboratory or other special purpose rooms as part of the schedule: for example, Freshman English, M-W, Rm. 233, F, Rm. 132. Apparently the faculty and students made the adjustment to an irregular room schedule with ease.

Most institutions have found it convenient (and traditional) to schedule courses in the same classroom for each class meeting during the week, unless a special purpose room is required for part of the week's work. Upon examination institutions may find that some classrooms are vacant at various times during the school week.

At Highland Park Junior College a more intense exploration of room utilization occurred somewhat by accident. The remodeling of a lecture room into a science laboratory required the room to be vacated from the middle to the end of the semester. After examination of the schedule of courses, all classes which had been meeting in the room to be remodeled were rescheduled in classrooms which had been vacant during the same class hours. The revision resulted in such irregular room schedules as: Biology 101, M, Rm. 355, T-W, Rm. 153, Th., Rm. 258, F (lab.), Rm. 355; Zoology 105, M-T, Rm. 353, W-F (lab.), Rm. 355, Th., Rm. 158. Students and staff appeared to make the schedule change in the middle of the semester with a minimum of difficulty.

Resistance to this type of irregular room schedule can be expected from some staff members. However, this same type of schedule has been in existence for many years in courses which require the use of special purpose rooms for part of the instruction during the school week, such as laboratories and visual aids rooms. Other staff members can teach this type of schedule with the same ease, if necessary.

Resistance to changing to an irregular room schedule might be partially overcome in the early stages by asking for volunteers from the staff; later, the assignment of this type of schedule could probably be made with a minimum of resistance and individual adjustment. Students require little or no adjustment to an irregular schedule of rooms.

## Variability of Grading Practices among Instructors of a Multiple-Section English Course

ELDRIDGE E. SCALES

ONE SUBJECT under fire and heatedly discussed in many faculty and departmental meetings is that of variability of grading practices among the instructors of multiple-section courses. Although variation is strongly suspected, most colleges lack specific information about the local program.

The consideration of differences in grading among instructors is important because virtually all functions of the registrar and other officials of the college are based upon letter grades. Program schedule, academic status, classification, graduation, scholarship action, employment, and recommendation are based upon the hypothesis that a letter grade has a fixed and defined value. This supposition is erroneous, however, unless instructors vary only within certain described limits of chance expectancy.

During the Spring Quarter of 1955-1956, the faculty of The Fort Valley State College set out to examine its grading practices. This study was made to provide precise information about the local program and to inform the instructors regarding their grading practices so that they could weigh the matter more realistically.

Since the grade of the student is evaluated by its competitive relationship to the grades given other students in other sections of the same course, this inquiry was motivated by two questions. Which instructors varied significantly in the bounteousness with which they assigned letter grades, and which instructors varied significantly in the degree to which they distributed grades over the five-letter grade scale of A, B, C, D, and F?

The grade report forms of the instructors of Humanities 101, Fall Quarter 1954-1955 through Fall Quarter 1955-1956 were utilized. Humanities 101 is a Freshman English course in which 391 students were enrolled during this period. All students who perform satisfactorily on the English Placement Examination must complete this course. All others must take and pass Remedial English 100 prior to Humanities 101.



Each instructor was free to describe and define course objectives, to describe his own examinations, to administer examinations as best suited the progress of his classes, to define the numerical limits of letter grades, to define and assign letter grades according to his own system, and to assign the number of each particular letter grade as he saw fit.

The letter grades A, B, C, D, and F were converted into numerical values of 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 respectively. The statistics employed were the mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean, and standard error of the standard deviation. The t-test was computed to ascertain which instructors differed significantly from the group in the following manner: One, the mean of grades assigned; and two, the standard deviation of grades assigned.

The first and second statistics indicate whether high or low grades were assigned and the extent to which grades were grouped around the midpoint. The third and fourth statistics were employed to check the "truth" of the picture as described by the first two statistics. These statistics were computed for each instructor.

Table I reveals the following:

1. Instructors 2 (1% level), 7 (4% level), and 8 (3% level) grade significantly higher than the others.
2. Instructor 1 grades lower, but not significantly lower, than his colleagues (19% level).
3. Instructors 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 8 assigned grades with a standard deviation significantly smaller than the group criterion, group sigma (1% level).
4. Of the group, three, or 37.5 per cent of the instructors, grade significantly higher than the others.
5. Significantly variations are in the direction of small range of dispersion of letter grades over the five-letter scale (1% level).
6. Instructor 5 assigned grades with a standard deviation significantly larger than those of his colleagues.

Indications of a significant deviation more firmly grounds the suspicion of differences in grading practices among instructors of Fort Valley State College multiple-section English course, Humanities 101.

Although the faculty has been informed of this initial effort to examine grading practices of instructors of multiple-section English course 101, it is not possible to determine its effect upon the vari-

TABLE I

THE MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, STANDARD ERROR OF THE MEAN, STANDARD ERROR OF THE STANDARD DEVIATION, AND T-TEST OF GRADES ASSIGNED BY INSTRUCTORS

Instructor	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean	t-test	Standard Error of Standard Deviation	t-test
1. (119)	1.96	.90	.082	1.302	.0594	.1648
2. (14)	3.78	.129	.036	4.66	.2529	19.36
3. (65)	2.14	.227	.0284	1.0507	.0199	18.346
4. (21)	2.24	.256	.0573	.586	.04047	13.106
5. (13)	2.54	1.307	.377	.176	.26678	1.345
6. (34)	2.24	.218	.0379	.6486	.0268	16.898
7. (112)	2.98	.267	.0253	2.03	.0179	17.73
8. (13)	3.32	.282	.0814	2.23	.0577	9.9402
Group (391)	2.43	.948	.0479			

ability of grading among instructors of this course. Such a study is planned.

The variation disclosed in this inquiry, it is felt, arises to a large part from the different and varying numerical equivalents for the letter grades used by the instructors. Yet, the use of letter grades assigned by instructors as a basis of estimation of student-worth in a course and as a ground for the execution of many administrative functions is a tool of immediate advantage.

It might be wise to consider the possibility of the existence and influence of certain instructors' attitudes upon grading. One can conceive of faculty members or departments nursing the belief that certain majors of a particular department, or enrollees in particular courses, are not capable of high caliber work. One might believe that certain courses must be treated in a substandard fashion if students are to be passed, or if grade distribution reports are to be unquestioned by the administration. Fortunately, there is little objective evidence that these practices are widespread or functioning. Perhaps such attitudes need a closer examination in the light of local institutional grading practices.

## Editorial Comment

WHEN I was in college, long, long ago, Oscar was the Registrar. He kept student records, sent out bills, taught mechanical drawing, sold books, and exchanged new electric light bulbs for old ones. What impressed us most about him was his standup collars, which we insisted he bought rolled by the yard and cut to appropriate—and astonishing—length with shears; and his capacity for ingesting with apparent enjoyment the desserts served in the college dining hall. These desserts were known generically as Oscar Pudding.

Ours was a small college; but as we know from George Tuttle and others, registrars were held elsewhere in little more regard. What academic reasoning and planning was done was managed without their assistance. Times changed, however, and with the change came the realization of what academic records can be good for, and what the registrar can be good for. There is no point in repeating what George Tuttle and others have already described so clearly and entertainingly: we need only remember that with the years the registrar became an academic official of prestige and influence. His president relied not only on his records, but also on his interpretation of those records. Members of the faculty and of the administration found that the registrar was a source of knowledge and understanding; and they tapped that source. Students discovered that the registrar was not a mechanical ogre, but rather one who might give them considerable assistance in solving their academic problems.

When I wrote to various colleges about admission, I sometimes got replies from the registrar, sometimes from a dean, once from a president, and once or twice from some one designated as an admissions officer of some sort. But the director of admissions came only slowly into his own—and his role changed with the changes in social conditions. Sometimes, as in various state institutions, he had to admit almost anybody who applied; and then his problem was to do his paper work and try to figure out what to do with the youngsters that turned up. Sometimes he administered entrance examinations; sometimes he interviewed prospects. When he had a chance to pick, he picked the best bets; when he had no such chance, he rounded up what he could.

With war years, he found himself rounding up almost any one

who would come to college. In this activity he was seconded by his college, often enough, through the offering of such courses as college officials thought students would look for. Fortunately, however, systematic methods of admission became the rule rather than the exception, and admissions officers acquired materials to work with and means to work with them. Offices of admissions and testing committees grew in importance and influence until some old-timers came to regard them as a racket. Psychologists, guidance experts, and specialists in education became influential, and added to the technical requirements for reasonable admissions policies.

Meanwhile something else had been happening in the registrar's office. The registrar, individually and collectively, had insisted that his office is a service office, and that his work is done not only to enable students to graduate properly, or fail to graduate properly, but also to furnish the administration with all such data as it might need to accomplish whatever it set out to do. More and more wonderful machines appeared, enabling registrars to furnish statistics of all kinds and varieties; and imagination led registrars to devise new sets of statistics in the hope that they might be useful somehow somewhere. Administrations, which paid for the machines, began to demand of the registrar statistical information of all sorts at any time.

And at the same time a rash of deans broke out over the country. Registrars reported to deans or assistant deans, and these reported to other deans, until the registrar often lost sight of his work as it ascended into the higher orders. This has gone on until, as some of our older members are aware, the registrar has been lost among his statistics. As registrar he has grown farther and farther away from administration, and from all academic responsibility, unless he has become a dean of some sort who meets with other deans and works on policy. The registrar no longer, in many institutions, assists in framing academic policy, but rather acts as a service officer, as he has so long insisted that he is.

Such relegation of the registrar to an almost mechanical position results in loss to his institution, to administration, faculty, and students. It leaves the man who knows as much, or should know as much about the institution as any one on the campus in a position where his knowledge is of no use to him or to others. He directs the compilation of statistics according to instructions, and hardly has time to do anything else. He is a service officer.

Such a state of affairs is discouraging to those of us who were brought up in our work in another generation, especially as the machines continue to proliferate and tables of statistics continue to entrance administrators. At the moment there seems little to do about it. That does not mean, however, that things are set as they must forever continue. It does mean that registrars, individually and in association, might well look at the situation as it is, and begin to investigate possibilities of raising the office again to the academic eminence it once enjoyed. The first step in such an investigation is to see the facts, look at them, evaluate them, and use them.

Circumstance, on the other hand, may bring about such a change in fortune as it has brought about for the admissions officer. He was once a part of the registrar's office—he was once many things. Now, however, thanks to changes over which he has little influence, he emerges as one of the most important policy-making officers in his institution. He is possibly the most important single administrator of policy, for he must carry out the theories and methods of admission of his institution. Because he is in a position to know so much about what must be done and what cannot be done, he is of importance in framing the policies. He must handle relations with secondary schools—in itself of first importance. He must somehow be able, as the years go on, to get together the student body most suitable to his institution, and at the same time advise applicants not so suited that they should go elsewhere. He must be able to tell them where they might best apply, and why they may do better there than in his institution. He must also be able to handle parents in such a way that they will admire his institution even if he rejects their children. As a public relations man he is of first importance. But it is as a guide to the future academic career of all students he accepts that he is most valuable. Whatever may happen subsequently, his decision comes first, and is of lasting weight. Whatever the admissions officer does affects whatever anyone else may do. That is a heavy responsibility, and one that must be recognized by both the admissions officer and his administration.

It is generally so recognized. The admissions officer has become an academic administrator of first rank. He may, however, slip. He may become infatuated with tables, statistics, percentiles, graphs, and calculations until he has no time to think. There is little enough time to think anyway; the admissions officer must take all he can

possibly get. He cannot afford to forget that he is dealing with people, not marks on paper. Once he forgets that, machines can take over for him.

Registrars and admissions officers must work together. At this time, it looks as though the admissions officer enjoys much greater prestige and exercises much greater influence as an academic and administrative officer. One job for the future is for admissions officers to maintain their excellent status, and for registrars to regain the equivalent status that is rightfully the prerogative of a registrar. Registrars must take time to think, too, in terms of academic policy, and make their thinking essential to their administrations—their thinking, as well as their statistics.

S. A. N.



## Book Reviews

W. G. B.

*Second Report to the President*, by the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, July 1957. Pp. xiii + 108. Price 55 cents.

Twice within the past decade a President of the United States has appointed a special committee, composed of laymen and educators, to study and report on conditions and problems in the field of higher education. The first of these committees was appointed by President Truman in 1946; it was officially known as the President's Commission on Higher Education; and its six-volume report was brought out under one cover by Harper & Brothers in 1948. The second of these committees was appointed by President Eisenhower in 1956; it was officially known as the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School; and it issued its *Second Report* (its final one) in July of 1957. There is much in the reports of both these committees that is worthy of serious consideration.

The committees, for instance, both called attention to the urgent need for an adequate supply of well-qualified teachers. Nothing of much consequence ever came of the detailed suggestions which the Truman Committee advanced as a means for helping the situation. Undaunted by the experience of this earlier group, the Eisenhower Committee made this problem of teacher shortage the starting-point for its deliberations. As the committee stated: "The most critical bottleneck to the expansion and improvement of education in the United States is the mounting shortage of excellent teachers." In a sense, the disease is the low status which the teacher enjoys in our society, and the symptom is the low salary scale. "At present salary levels the teacher in effect subsidizes the education of the individual student and the benefits that society derives therefrom. Of course there are and will be substantial differences in salary structures by region and by institution. It has been estimated, however, that on an overall national basis an average salary structure approximately competitive with comparable professions would cost over \$800 million in additional annual payroll. That is roughly the size of the present subsidy of higher education by its faculties in a single year. It is nearly eight times the total alumni contributions in 1956. It is also nearly eight times the size of current corporation support to colleges and universities, and over five times the total endowment income. It means that college faculties as a whole contribute more dollars to education than all other individual and corporate donors combined." In a sense, the hidden subsidy which our college faculties annually make to education is tantamount to the largest scholar-

ship program in world history. The Eisenhower Committee attached top priority to the matter of an adequate salary scale for teachers.

The two committees, also, gave serious consideration to the stubborn question of quality versus quantity in our institutions of higher learning, and each emerged with the conclusion that a democracy has no alternative other than to make wise provision for both. The Truman Committee had this to say: "This Commission has concluded, after consideration of the results of the Army General Classification Test, the most inclusive testing program ever conducted, that even with the present inflexibility of college curricula, a minimum of 49 per cent of the college-age population of this country has the ability to complete at least the first 2 years of college work, and at least 32 per cent has the ability to complete additional years of higher education. . . . To deprive qualified persons of the values thus to be gained is to restrict their potential development, narrow their outlook, and limit their appreciations. America cannot afford to be niggardly in its investment in individual well-being." The Eisenhower Committee stated its point of view as follows: "This Committee does not agree with those who argue that, in order to preserve quality, colleges must sharply restrict enrollments to something like their present level by steadily boosting admission standards. This would mean giving narrower opportunities to tomorrow's youth than those enjoyed by today's. . . . The choice between quality and quantity is not mandatory. The Nation needs more of both, and it can have more of both if it decides to do so. The decision rests much more with the public than with the educators, and the public's decision must be expressed in terms of greatly increased financial support for colleges and universities."

The Truman and Eisenhower Committees both walked boldly into the knotty problem of Federal aid to education, which inevitably leads into the muddy field of Church-and-State controversy. The report of the Truman Committee was accompanied by a notable "Statement of Dissent," which set forth clearly the Catholic point of view on the subject. It was the substantial consensus, but not the unanimous opinion, of the Eisenhower Committee that the role of the Federal Government should be strictly a residual one, i.e., that it should take up the slack only where state aid and aid from other sources leave off. To be more specific: "The Federal Government should provide broad national leadership, should collect and provide useful data and services, and should provide certain other needed assistance, such as is recommended in this Report. But it should do these things only by methods which strengthen state and local effort and responsibility and, in the case of direct financial assistance, only through programs which are periodically reviewed and which are promptly terminated when no longer clearly justifiable. Finally, the Federal Government should studiously avoid programs and policies which carry the threat either

of control or of other adverse effects upon the educational institutions."

The Eisenhower Committee, we are told in its *Second Report*, "came into being because of a genuine need for a group of laymen and educators to take an overall look at education beyond the high school in this country, to lay their findings before the American people, to make them aware of critical issues and to stimulate needed action." The committee issued an *Interim Report* in November of 1956, and found it necessary, in July of 1957, to rush its *Second Report* into print while it still had funds enough to do so. Revolutionary changes have occurred in American education. Without perhaps fully realizing it, we have become a "society of students." More than 40 million of us—one-fourth of the nation—are enrolled in formal educational programs of one sort or another, and other millions of us are involved in less formal educational efforts. The Eisenhower Committee accepted as its challenge the fact that "our colleges and universities are expected by the American public to perform something close to a miracle in the next 10 to 15 years." How are we to provide higher education of a continually improving quality for a far larger number of students—a number that may reach at least 6 million in 1970 compared to the 3 million now?

The *Second Report* of the Eisenhower Committee begins with a "Summary Report," which ranges over the entire subject with effective brevity and concludes with a list of the specific recommendations that are set forth and explained more fully in the five chapters that follow: "The Need for Teachers," "The Need for Assistance to Students," "Expansion and Diversity of Educational Opportunities: the Need for Planning," "Financing Higher Education," and "The Federal Government and Education Beyond the High School." The report abounds in so many intriguing ideas and specific recommendations that it is difficult to single out just a few for special notice. A random sampling, however, would include the following:

That "if the United States is to become increasingly a society of students it must also become increasingly a society of teachers"; that "women comprise the greatest potential pool of additional college teachers for the future"; that "the quantity of students and the quality of education cannot rise together unless basic educational resources also rise with sufficient speed"; that all persons concerned be reminded that, on the average, in our private institutions the student pays less than 47 per cent of the cost of his instruction, and, in the publicly supported institutions, less than 18 per cent; that all new scholarship programs be so established that they include appropriate supplemental funds to the institutions which the students attend; that, in general, the expansion and support of existing colleges be given priority over the establishment of new ones; that, whenever expansion of facilities becomes inevitable, appropriate attention be given to the development of 2-year community colleges; that in the estab-

lishing of new institutions we not repeat the errors that were made in the developing of too many small high schools; that a diversity of educational institutions is highly desirable, and that we endeavor to keep a proper ratio of enrollments between our public institutions and those under private control; "that the majority of colleges and universities could improve the quality of education offered by reducing substantially the number of courses offered and using the resources thus released, including faculty and student energies, to improve the rest"; that "the role of the Federal Government in higher education should be definitely residual"; that an experimental and federally sponsored "work-study" program be instituted at our institutions of higher learning so that from 25,000 to 50,000 of our most able and needy students may be assured of part-time employment at fair wages; that whenever a Federal scholarship program should appear to be inevitable, the recipient of the scholarship be allowed to select his own field of study and the institution of his choice; "that the Federal Government promptly develop and implement a consistent and equitable policy for the payment of full costs, including indirect costs to the institutions, of Federal contract research programs operating in or through colleges and universities"; that the United States Office of Education be adequately financed, adequately staffed, and so organized that it can carry out all of its important responsibilities; and that, in spite of the inevitability of the dollar sign, we remember that the real challenge which confronts us "is neither a set of problems nor a set of solutions which money alone can buy," but rather "an enormous and unprecedented opportunity to develop the human resources of this Nation to a broader and fuller degree than even our most optimistic forebears ever dreamed of."

W. G. B.

Paul Woodring, *A Fourth of a Nation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957. Pp. vii + 225. \$4.50.

Paul Woodring wrote *A Fourth of a Nation* while serving as a professor of educational philosophy and psychology in a teacher's college. He owns a doctoral degree in psychology, and has served as a clinical psychologist. He has also had considerable experience in public schools and colleges, has written a good deal about education, and is now employed as a full-time consultant by the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation.

*A Fourth of a Nation* takes its title from the fact that more than 40 million Americans are now in school or college, but Dr. Woodring's main concern is with the dilemma of the public schools caused by the division between those who advocate the development of young minds and those who advocate the adjustment of young people to living. His book is readable and significant.

"In this debate," we are told in the first chapter, "the great majority of scholars and other intellectuals stand in opposition to the spokesmen for professional education." Critics of the public schools "are convinced that a small group of professional educators have played too great a role in the determination of school policy to the exclusion of scholars from other fields and the general public." Students preparing to teach have been indoctrinated with the tenets of the new progressivism. Those resisting—"and these included some of the most intelligent"—were regarded as "unco-operative" and "unenlightened" and "did not receive the most enthusiastic recommendations for teaching positions." "The influence of this on the teacher shortage, and on the quality of teachers, has never been fully assessed, but it must have been considerable." The death of the Progressive Education Association in 1955 brought an end to an era, but there remains the problem of clearing away the rubbish.

Chapter 2, "The Development of the Mind," states the views of those who hold to the traditional concept of education. Supporters of this view will probably feel that Dr. Woodring is putting into their mouths words that they did not say and opinions that they have never held. To imply, as I believe the author does, that this group have little if any understanding of individual differences and no concern for the education of the weaker students is wrong. Have the majority of this group opposed technical high schools, technical institutes, and junior colleges with terminal programs? Have not the "Pragmatists" been the ones to neglect individual differences by reducing the schools to a single level where even the weaker students are at home intellectually?

The supporters of "The Pragmatic Antithesis" may also find cause for disagreement with Dr. Woodring, who credits the Educators with certain assumptions that are incapable of scientific justification:

1. The new concept of will, which asserts that will is primary and at the same time denies that there is freedom of choice.
2. Rousseau's belief in "the inherent goodness of the child."
3. The doctrine that the schools should lead the way in social progress.
4. Freud's view that the most important aspects of mind are unconscious.

Academic scholars will applaud this reduction of much of the Educator's philosophy to pseudoscience and sentimentality.

In Chapter 4, "Toward a New Synthesis," Dr. Woodring hacks a passable trail through the wilderness of contemporary public school education. The aim of education he states briefly: "In a society of free men, the proper aim of education is to prepare the individual to make wise decisions." Furthermore, "all choice is intellectual" and "education must be intellectual."

Whether Woodring's ungraded primary school from which the child is moved to the third grade at the end of two (possibly one) to five years



would be better than a graded system where passing is not automatic is, I think, doubtful; but with the American belief that progress is always forward, perhaps there would be no use arguing for a return to standards in the grammar school. His four-year elementary school would replace the present grades three through nine. In high school, students would be grouped according to ability and motivation in *each* subject but not for "home-room and special purposes." The best students would presumably finish in three years, others in four, and the weakest would drop out without graduation. (I would suggest the immediate elimination of the present eighth grade of junior high as a significant step toward Dr. Woodring's goal.) High school graduates would be admitted to genuine liberal arts colleges by entrance examination only. Some would terminate their education in junior colleges and trade schools. Others would go to work. No longer would "all roads" in high school "lead to the same honor roll, the same diploma, and the same colleges," nor would the brightest students be taught by some teachers inferior in intelligence to their own.

What is to be said about Chapter V, "The Education of Teachers"? Some things in it are extraordinarily good: "the prestige of the teaching profession must be increased," liberal colleges are partly responsible for the condition of the public schools, college presidents should be more careful about the appointment of deans and professors of education, decisions regarding teacher education in a college should not be left to the "departments of education and to certification boards," and the state "certification laws give some assurance that the teacher will have professional knowledge but much less assurance that he will be liberally educated or that he will have a competent knowledge of the subject to be taught."

In all, Dr. Woodring argues so cogently against the proliferation of courses in departments of education, "the trends toward anti-intellectualism and the cult of mediocrity in our schools and teachers colleges," the existence of "300 to 400 different professional courses" in "some graduate schools of education," and the "mediocre intelligence, poor scholarship or both" of some administrators "who are reported to prefer teachers of mediocre scholarship" that it is difficult to face calmly his insistence that educational philosophy, educational psychology, methods, and practice teaching to a total of "18 or 20 semester hours" in the undergraduate curriculum should be required for teacher certification. Dr. Woodring in this respect is a meliorist, and the situation demands amelioration; but is he not overmild in suggesting that "those universities now offering several hundred courses in education could profitably reduce the number to about forty or fifty"?

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*Education in the USSR*. Bulletin 1957, No. 14, of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1957. Pp. xiv + 226. \$1.25.

*Education in the USSR* is one of the studies in the series which the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is issuing on educational systems of foreign countries. It is a report of 226 pages, with pictures, charts, statistical tables, and a selected bibliography of English and Russian publications in the field concerned. *Education in the USSR* is by no means as detailed or definitive a study as Korol's *Soviet Education for Science and Technology*, which is reviewed elsewhere in these pages. It is, however, an interesting and competent discussion of the organization, curriculum, methods, and policies of the Russian educational system.

The educational system in the Soviet Union is far too complicated to permit of capsule explanation. Russia, it is to be remembered, is almost three times the size of the United States, exceeds the area of South America, and covers one-sixth of the earth's surface. The USSR is an elaborate federal structure, consisting of 15 union republics and many subordinate components. More than 125 languages and dialects are spoken by the estimated 200.2 million people comprising its population. Of this number, however, about three-fourths are Slavs, and the mother tongue of the classroom of the typical school is Russian. "The same basic curriculum is taught and the same subject matter is required, whether, for example, children are taught in Ukrainian, Tadzhik, or Estonian. Russification is carried out intensively. Children of the non-Russian speaking republics are taught the Russian language; Russian literature, history, and traditions are incorporated in their curriculum to develop an appreciation for the Russian 'big brother' republic." Russia is a land of working mothers, and for children under the age of 7, there are the nurseries or crèches followed by the kindergartens. "The standard regular primary-secondary school program in each of the Soviet Republics is for children between the ages of 7 and 18. It is divided into three stages which somewhat approximate the elementary and secondary levels of education in the US. In the USSR, the three stages are not grouped into separate schools by educational levels as they frequently are in the US. The Soviet schools are organized into 4-year or primary schools consisting of grades I through IV for children aged 7 to 11; 7-year or incomplete secondary schools consisting of grades I through VII for children in the age range of 7 to 15 (including the junior secondary schools for ages 11 to 15); and 10-year or complete secondary schools with grades I through X for children in the age range of 7 to 18. The same curriculum is covered in grade III, for example, whether it is located in a 4-year, a 7-year, or a 10-year school." The Soviets hope that by 1960 this 10-year school will be the standard primary-secondary institution throughout the USSR, although other organizational patterns will

also be in operation for children of the non-Russian speaking minorities.

The work of the 10-year primary-secondary school is brought to a close by a series of matriculation examinations, oral as well as written. As the study states in this connection: "At the end of their tenth year of primary-secondary schooling, Soviet boys and girls who have received marks in grade X of '3' (passing) or better for each subject, and no less than '5' (excellent) in behavior, are eligible to sit for the State matriculation examinations covering the work of grade X and the essential topics studied in previous grades. In addition, those over 17 years of age who, through study on their own or in a part-time program, have prepared to take them, may do so. Those who successfully pass these month-long comprehensive examinations (about 90 per cent according to Soviet press reports) are awarded a matriculation certificate (somewhat equivalent to the US high school diploma), prerequisite to study in programs at the next higher level." Those who make the highest grades on these tests are automatically eligible for admission to a university. Entrance examinations, again both oral and written, are required of all others who wish to continue their education at the university level. In all instances, the written examination in the Russian language and literature is the first to be taken, and only those students who make a passing mark on this test are permitted to take the others.

Higher education in Russia is neither designed nor intended to meet the needs of all students who are qualified to continue their studies at the university level. "Admission is admittedly circumscribed by possession of a satisfactory political record, opportunity to acquire secondary education, academic competence and particular aptitudes, and adequacy of resources to withstand the loss of potential income." The institutions of higher learning, moreover, tend to be concentrated in some few areas. "Six cities account for more than one-fourth of the total number of higher institutions with Moscow and its immediate environs containing some 90 schools of university level and about one-fifth of the total number of students. In 1951, as many new students were reportedly admitted to higher schools in Moscow as were admitted to all the schools of the Ukraine. Moscow facilities, together with those in Leningrad, appear to serve at least 80 per cent of those studying for the doctor of sciences degree and probably 60 per cent of those for the candidate of sciences." Upon graduation, the student is assigned to a job at which he is obligated to remain for at least three years. The State holds the controlling hand over these higher institutions as it does over those of the lower levels. "The Union-Republic Ministry of Higher Education exercises supervisory control, including control of general academic standards over *all* Soviet higher educational institutions and semiprofessional schools. It controls teaching staff, curricula, textbooks, enrollment quotas, and the assignment of graduates."

Interesting details are to be found here and there throughout the report.

Students, for instance, attend the primary-secondary schools on a shift basis: one shift running from 8 a.m. to 1 or 2 p.m., and the other from 2 until 7 or 8 p.m. The student-teacher ratio in these schools has been reduced from 33.1 to 1 in 1927, to 28.6 to 1 in 1940, to 23.2 to 1 in 1950, and 17.0 to 1 in 1955. It is considered a reflection on the ability of the teacher if fewer than 90 per cent of the class fail to pass the work of the course. "Discipline is regarded as a matter of State importance as well as of parental concern in the USSR. At an early age Soviet children are taught conformity—a passive acceptance of personal and social discipline." The Soviets place a much greater emphasis than we do on the study of the sciences. Of the students, for instance, who graduated from our secondary schools in June of 1955, fewer than a third had taken a year of chemistry, about a fourth had taken a year of physics, and fewer than a seventh had taken advanced mathematics. On the other hand, graduates of the primary-secondary schools in Russia had taken astronomy for one year, chemistry for four years, physics for five years, biology for five years, and mathematics including arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry for ten years. Stress is also placed upon the study of foreign languages. This work begins in grade V and continues through grade X. During the academic year 1955-56, approximately 40 per cent of the pupils in the secondary schools were studying German, 40 per cent English, and the remaining 20 per cent were enrolled for work in French, Spanish, or Latin. It is further reported that about 65 per cent of the students in the institutions of higher learning study English. Boys in the primary-secondary schools are given military instruction for one hour a week during one of the physical education periods in grades VII through X. This military instruction includes drill, military tactics, and training in the handling of weapons. The boys in grade X have rifle and machine-gun marksmanship with live ammunition.

The readers of *Education in the USSR* will need to keep well within bounds the urge to make comparisons between the Russian educational system and our own. The urge to indulge in such comparisons is entirely understandable in view of the great advances which the Russians have made in the current space-age weapons race. As the writers of this report, however, remind us at the outset, in "Soviet education one finds a field of high controversy, with a broad body of sharply debated data." It is difficult to get at the truth of almost anything that lies behind the iron curtain. Great care must be exercised in the obtaining of facts from official Soviet sources, and even greater care must be exercised in the making of interpretations and generalizations based upon those facts. Suppose we do accept as a fact that in 1955 the student-teacher ratio in the 10-year primary-secondary schools of the USSR was 17.0 to 1. For this same year, the student-teacher ratio for the average public school in the US was 26.9 to 1. Does it necessarily follow that the teachers in the elementary and secondary schools in the USSR do a better job in the classroom than ours do? There

is no evidence at all to support such a conclusion. Again, the schools in the 10-year primary-secondary system place great stress on discipline. But it does not follow that the Russian boys and girls develop into better citizens than ours do. "The strictness with which Soviet children are trained to conform to a predetermined social pattern by measures imposed by the State, probably accounts for the strong impression the precise behavior of Soviet children makes on Western visitors. It may also account to a degree for outbursts of hooliganism and other forms of juvenile delinquency prevalent in the USSR." There is, also, the elaborate system of examinations, oral as well as written, for the matriculation certificate from the 10-year primary-secondary schools and the elaborate system of tests, again oral as well written, for most of those who proceed to the universities. But there is no evidence that such examinations are any more effective than ours are. There is, however, ample evidence that they must be a wearisome chore to the examiners as well as to those being examined.

*Education in the USSR* makes abundantly clear that the strength and weakness of the Russian educational system are both stamped with the same label: made in the USSR. There is no need to deny that for a crash program the Russians may have a better educational system than we do. The State can easily decide what skills are most needed and can quickly determine the most expeditious way in which these particular needs may be met. "For example, the State decides that a certain number of ballet stars are needed to entertain the people. In turn, aspiring children throughout the USSR compete for enrollment in the few ballet schools. Of the ones permitted to enroll, only those judged best according to Soviet standards survive the years of study and practice necessary to become stars for the State. . . . In athletics the situation is the same. There are 16 physical education schools. Sports events are held periodically throughout the Soviet Union, and potential athletic talent is spotted, tested, and selected for further training in these institutions, with emphasis on producing champions and excellent coaches." Similarly, those students who show the greater potentialities for careers in science can easily be funneled into those technological institutes whose graduates are considered most essential to the advancement of the Soviet State both economically and militarily. But the great weakness of this overpowering concern for the welfare of the State is the simple fact that the interests of the individual citizen are completely lost. "The State is preeminent. To its full development every person is expected to contribute his best efforts as his primary obligation. The growth and development of his own individuality are of secondary importance." In essence, the chief function of education in the USSR is the creation of the communist citizen, who in turn ensures the continuance of the communist State.

W. G. B.

Alexander G. Korol, *Soviet Education for Science and Technology*. Foreword by Max F. Millikan. New York: The Technology Press of Massachusetts Institute of Technology and John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. xxv + 513. \$8.50.

For the first time in history, the adequacy of our educational institutions has become a means of international policy. We are, as Mr. Korol's book makes unmistakably clear, in scientific competition with the Soviet Union both for international prestige and for military power. Our battles will not be won or lost on the playing fields; the locus of international effectiveness has now moved indoors to the classrooms of our schools and colleges. How well are the Russians educating their youth, and to what ends?—We must know these things accurately and in detail.

Mr. Korol's book is a source of major significance for a great deal of this kind of information that is not available elsewhere. The delightful thing about this book is that it does not consist either in broad generalizations followed by cold chills, nor in a mass of collected detail. He has done what few of us would have the patience to, and fewer still the ability: correlated widely diverse sources of partial information to produce a balanced and impartial picture of the whole Soviet educational system. For although the title of the book and the emphasis of its detail refer to science and technology, Mr. Korol has wisely seen that we can understand this only in reference to its place in the whole scheme of education.

It is a significant fact that the Russians have learned from us. Although they qualify their interest with asides about capitalism, they "naturally have no intention of denying ourselves the benefit of the experience of the capitalist countries and particularly of America" (a Russian source, quoted by Korol, p. 457), and they have shown no compunction in using American educational techniques, curricula, and books. One of the ways in which American ideas are being most helpful to the Russians is the present trend towards cutting down an extreme overspecialization and multiplication of curricula, in favor of a broader education adaptable to many different vocations. Perhaps we still have to go further in this direction, but we are ahead of the Russians. Oddly enough, one thing they will not yet adopt from us is the use of standardized objective aptitude tests; the consequence is that their normal method of examination, even with greatly expanded enrollment, is the oral examination. The reason for this defect of technique is their unwillingness to accept class distinctions based on hereditary differences. The inconvenience of this educational inefficiency is more than made up by administrative simplicity—for a school system which must for policy reasons be controlled from a single Ministry.

Some of their successes and failures might be mentioned. The Soviet system of massive control has produced an organized and adaptable curriculum capable of achieving Soviet goals. While we are still discussing the



problem of motivating students to take up science, they can turn out scientists, engineers, and technicians. The trick is merely to change their national admissions quotas, and automatically the desired results follow. They follow because each educational level is filled competitively, and because there are no desirable alternatives to professional education except a Party career, so that the student's motivation is not to a subject-matter but to an educational level. By and large, their best students get the most education and their worst are turned out to subordinate jobs; their best scientists are liberally supplied with technicians, and their education can proceed faster toward a professional goal than can the corresponding level in America. Their students spend more hours in the classroom, for more weeks per year, and begin the study of technical subjects (especially physics) much earlier than ours.

On the other hand, their education is much more of a rigid, vocational training than ours, is subject to arbitrary shifts whenever policy dictates, and is administered by an unwieldy bureaucracy that must refer every decision to a higher level. These respective advantages and disadvantages stem from the monolithic character of the communist State and its utter unconcern for the individual. "A good analogy could be drawn, it would seem, between the educational system of the Soviet Union as it has operated for 40 years and a military training program anywhere in *time of war*. The individual is subordinated, fields of training are prescribed and limited, with quotas in each category, and the best possible facilities and resources are mobilized for training in the most crucially needed fields."

I will not try to summarize Mr. Korol's careful analysis of the Soviet school system, with its correlated details of curricula, courses, texts, examinations, enrollment, and salaries. No review can take the place of patient study of his book; I hope this review makes it clear that to do our job as educators we must study it. The chilling conclusion which he draws is that our problem does not lie in the area of education alone. In fact, within the Soviet Union, education is not an independently describable entity. It is a tool of communist policy, and its effectiveness can only be described in terms of communist goals. Of these, Mr. Korol asks: "Capabilities for what? In other words, what are the Soviet objectives, requirements, and tasks which its educational system and its trained manpower are intended to serve? The answer is provided by history. In the context of the war long ago declared by communism against the free democratic societies, but still not taken seriously enough by many of the intended victims, the Soviet Union has committed the major part of the productive effort, skill, and talent of its people to the maintenance and increase of communist capability for the aggressive expansion of communist power."

The conclusions which appear to follow from this study are that the Soviet Union has an effective and adaptable educational system, that this system suffers all the inefficiencies of a rigidly controlled bureaucratic



system, that it gives first-rate professional training, and that it is very weak in those elements of philosophy, literature, and the social sciences which distinguish education from training. This is so because the communists do not think it desirable that their professional men have ideas on political or social ends: ideas are the prerogative of the Party. And it follows that if we are to compete with Soviet education for science and technology we must take pains that every step of this competition is not just technical training but an education appropriate to free men defending a free world. As Mr. Korol says, "Soviet education has been called by many justifiably apprehensive American observers a threat. The choice of terms, incongruously linking as it does the word 'threat' with 'education,' is unfortunate, for its implication is false. The locus of the threat is not Soviet education but Soviet communism. For that matter, the threat derives in part from the fact that there is no true education under communism."

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Alina M. Lindegren, *Germany Revisited: Education in the Federal Republic*. Bulletin 1957, No. 12, of the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1957. Pp. viii + 107. Price 55 cents.

Dr. Alina Lindegren was in Germany for six weeks in 1955. Her report, based upon her experiences there, is necessarily limited to certain topics of the broad field, "Education." After her death, the report was completed by Prof. Burr W. Phillips (University of Wisconsin, Chapter IV), and Paul Bodeman (U. S. Office of Education, Chapter VI). The bibliography of six pages contains postwar American and German publications.

After some introductory remarks on the German educational system in the past periods, Chapter II, "Control of Education," describes the difficulties after 1945, when no political or social organization existed to build up a new educational system. One reverted to the status of 1932 (before Hitler) and started with trials and errors. Finally, in 1955, the "Duesseldorf Agreement" of the Minister Presidents of the West German States led—with slight variations in some states—to a general school organization as shown in the accompanying graph.

Most of the schools indicated on this graph are under the authority of the School Division in the office of the District President (3 to 6 of such districts form a state), and these Divisions receive their instructions from the Ministry of Education of the State. Municipalities and state jointly finance the public schools. All institutions of higher education (Chapter VI) are paid and directly supervised by the Ministry.



The Ministers of Education meet periodically at a "Permanent Conference," whose President appoints an assisting Committee of 20 members (teachers, professors, scientists, artists). The conference corresponds to the Council of Chief State School Officers; and on the Federal level, also, are some similarities to some committees of the Senate and House.

Chapter III, on the "Goal of Equal Educational Opportunity," discusses the schools of the graph, with detailed remarks on the development in the past. In 1935, the system was similar, as shown: the minimum duration of full-time schooling was 9 years, as at present. Necessary and sufficient for admission to a German university is the preparation through a Gymnasium, ending with the "Certificate of Maturity" after the 13th school year. Of the nearly 2,000 Gymnasias existing at that time, one-fourth were of type  $E_1$ , emphasizing Latin and Greek; one-third of the type  $E_2$ , emphasizing Latin and modern languages; one-third of type  $E_3$ ; the remaining part of the "Aufbau"-type D, a "short" "Gymnasium of 7 years, "built upon" 6 years preceding elementary school. Under Hitler, the time of the E-type Gymnasias was shortened to 8 years. English was introduced as the first foreign language, and only a few "classical" schools  $E_1$  were continued.

After 1945, most of the states re-established the 9-year secondary school; only a few introduced the sequence of 6 elementary and 7 secondary school years; one added an Aufbau-type of 8 elementary and 5 secondary years. In the  $E_1$ -type, the pupils start with Latin, English, and Greek in the 5th, 7th, and 9th school years; in the  $E_2$ -type, the corresponding order is English, Latin, and French; the  $E_3$ -type requires only English (5th) and French (7th) and offers Latin (optionally) beginning in the 11th year.

For a better understanding of the situation, the reviewer here adds the following clarifying facts: In the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th year, only approximately 20 per cent of all pupils are studying in the Gymnasium; in the higher school years, even fewer. Of all pupils in the Gymnasium, only 10 per cent are in the  $E_1$ -type, by far less in the D-type. Of all pupils starting the Gymnasium in the 5th school year, only approximately one-third reach the "Certificate of Maturity"; of all pupils with this certificate, about two-thirds intend to visit a university. In the elementary and middle schools, the average class has 35-40 pupils; in the secondary schools, there is about one teacher for 25 pupils.

The majority of the pupils attend the elementary school for 9 years, enter practical work at the age of 15, and continue simultaneously part-time vocational school. Completed attendance may be followed by a higher vocational school (Technical Institute and the like). Another big group shifts in the 5th, 6th, 7th, or 8th year to the middle school, continuing then through a higher vocational school. The reason for this choice is not the cost of the school but the need of early earnings. Nearly all states provide exemption of fees and free supply of textbooks for all schools;

one state even provides exemption of fees—at all universities for the citizens of this state (Hessen).

Some personal remarks may here again be added: The German school system is changing slowly but essentially. Built upon the old tradition, the system is in a state of modernization, and many influences from the United States are apparent. The political, social, and economic status of Germany, however, requires a system different from our own. The more or less complete "unification" of the schools is neither possible nor desirable in the near future. In the present system, also, many opportunities exist, as many sources of support are available for the gifted student. Speaking and listening to people in leading, responsible positions in these schools, one is impressed by the open-minded, democratic, progressive, sincere spirit of most of them. They are striving for opportunities for every pupil desiring and deserving them, but their concept of democracy leads to a system of different ways for different abilities.

In Chapter IV, on the "Social Studies," the author describes clearly the difficulty of defining the term. In conferences and workshops, the confusion in its use could only partly be corrected. Each type of school offers different types of courses, and the progress is slow. New educators must first be educated, with clear basic definitions, based upon experiences from experimental schools.

Chapter V shows the attempts at "bridging the gap between elementary and secondary school teachers." As before Hitler's time, the elementary school teachers receive their training at "Teacher Colleges" or "Pedagogical Institutes," whereas the future secondary teacher attends a university. At present, "elementary" teachers are required to have the "Certificate of Maturity," to pass a first examination after 3 years of studies, and to pass a second one after 2 or 3 years of practical activities. "Secondary" and "vocational" teachers pass their first examination after 4 years of university studies and a second one after 2 years of preparatory service. New heated arguments are in the discussions today (January 1958), as one state intends to establish new "Pedagogical Hochschulen" of university rank, possessing the rights of doctor—promotion and habilitation (see Chapter VI). The protests of the universities of all states have postponed the decision.

Chapter VI discusses the institutes of higher education, focusing on the 17 universities. Under Hitler, everything had been centralized: The Rektor (Chancellor) and the Deans were appointed by the National Minister of Education, and even the "venia legendi" or "habilitation," i.e., the privilege to teach in the university, was conferred only by the authority of the Minister. After the denazification, the old "academic freedom" was slowly re-established, sometimes with the special aid of Occupation authorities. In "countless reports" and "untold numbers of interviews," a new spirit was shaped. The problems were numerous: the feeling of having

"fallen behind the times," the missing role of the German university in the general society, the instability of this society, the loss of "intellectual freedom," etc., etc. Based upon the old tradition, the universities are again practically autonomous institutions of the states. The Rektor is the head of the self-administration, elected annually from among the full professors. The Fakultät (faculty of a department or school) is responsible for instruction, examination, conferring of degrees, and the *venia legendi*. The student is completely free in his choice of program—without semester examination, course grades, credits; he must only pass the final examinations for his chosen profession in one of the classical 4 faculties: Law, Medicine, Theology, and Philosophy, or the new faculties of Natural Sciences, Political Sciences, etc. All engineering departments are combined in the 8 existing Institutes of Technology (not discussed in this report). Pre-examinations and Diploma examinations have been established in some departments for those not striving for promotion to the doctorate. The Diploma corresponds to our "M.S." or "M.A." and is the regular degree for all engineers after 4 years of studies.

The weakness of the system, as the author sees it, is the early specialization into a narrow field—not only in the "special" studies of theology, medicine, or engineering. The universities are trying to emphasize a "Studium Generale" by providing (Technical University Berlin) an additional first year of general studies or by providing one day a week as the "University day" of general lectures only. Another weak point in the past was the missing personal contact of the student with the faculty. Student guidance, service, and support are at present more important than ever before. Many faculty members show a real personal interest in the student, and some take care of these problems as an official duty.

Not only in this respect is the American influence observable: "American Studies" are recognized as a "major subject"; and the "American House," the "International Students Club," and international literature are well known among students and are part of the evening activities.

Participation in the exchange-of-persons programs is the topic of the last chapter of the report. The "Institute for International Educational Research" in Frankfurt and the "German Academic Exchange Service" in Bonn are described in detail, as is the influence of the "German-American Conferences of Historians and Teachers of History" upon the present German school books of history.

In closing this review, I would like to say that in my opinion this important report reveals a true, objective picture of "Education in the Federal Republic." Working here in Germany at present as Visiting Professor, I have found the teachers and students, the schools and universities as described. A democratic spirit of progress, friendliness, and mutual understanding is observable, and in this spirit the future development promises to be "beneficial to both American and German higher education,

helping to overcome narrow nationalism, and strengthening ties between Germany and the United States."

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John Dale Russell and James I. Doi, *Manual for Studies of Space Utilization in Colleges and Universities*. Prepared for and in Co-operation with the Committee on Enrollment Trends and Space Utilization of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Athens, Ohio, 1957. Order from Robert Mahn, Registrar, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, at \$2.00 per copy.

John Dale Russell and James I. Doi have provided an outstanding contribution to the field of administration in higher education through the publication of *Manual for Studies of Space Utilization in Colleges and Universities*.

In this era of the "rising tidal wave" of college and university enrollments and the subsequent tightening of financial assistance for staff and physical plant expansion, much concern has been shown relative to the solutions for the administrative problems attendant on the rapid expansion of enrollments with low budgets. The obvious solution to the problems would be larger classes, more effective scheduling procedures for the use of plant facilities over an extended day period, more efficient teaching methods, etc. In actuality, however, the obvious solutions are not always so practical in operation because of tradition, accreditation regulations, and habits of the American college and university populations. Also the necessity for many to use weekends for part-time employment, instead of educational pursuits, makes a full scheduling of the physical plants six days per week almost impossible. These problems are effectively presented with suggestions which may aid to solution as the expansion ahead demands action. The emphasis of the book, however, is on patterns of study which will help to provide effective space utilization in colleges and universities.

The authors point out that in gathering material for the book they found that a dearth of data exists in the area of space utilization. They further pointed out that in response to inquiry many institutions wanted the material held in confidence. They stated that a general feeling of secrecy existed in discussing studies of space utilization among college and university administrators. Probably the most important factor creating this feeling of secrecy has developed from the fact that in the past no two institutions have followed the same specifications for conducting their space utilization studies. Thus data in parallel studies have not been comparable, and institutions conducting careful space utilization studies



in the true sense have suffered by comparison with institutions whose space utilization studies have been in name only.

The *Manual for Studies of Space Utilization in Colleges and Universities* provides an excellent pattern for collecting, classifying, organizing, and finally analyzing data for the purpose of determining the comprehensiveness of space utilization. The publication emphasizes that outside experts are not necessary for conducting individual college or university space utilization studies; surveys of this sort can be conducted by any person following the pattern outlined. Small colleges or large complex universities may follow the *Manual* with equal effectiveness.

John Dale Russell and James I. Doi have done an excellent job in providing a tool which should be in the personal reference library of every college or university administrator. The *Manual* provides a pattern for space utilization which, if followed, will make possible the development of comparative studies of space utilization for the establishment of norms and give direction to the demands of administrators for additional facilities in preparing for the student population increases in the decade ahead.

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Marguerite Wykoff Zapoleon, *The College Girl Looks Ahead*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956. Pp. x + 272. \$3.75.

The title as shown here is the one on the backbone; the title page adds, in smaller type, "to her career opportunities." For most college girls this is a long look ahead, as Mrs. Zapoleon points out. College girls are girls, and most of all they want husbands, homes, and children. Being pretty smart girls, they usually succeed.

Although the ranks of unmarried career women are thinning, a new trend is noted. Many women with families are joining the labor force as soon as their presence in the home is not essential. Mrs. Zapoleon predicts that ten years after graduation 5 out of 6 college women will have married and averaged 2 children; 4 out of 10 will have a job, including 1 out of 4 of the wives; twenty-five years after graduation at least 9 out of 10 will have married, and 1 out of 2 will be working outside the home.

The author is now a Special Assistant in the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. A past editor of *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, Mrs. Zapoleon had had more than twenty years of experience in various branches of government. Before moving to her present post, she spent six years as Chief of the Employment Opportunities Branch of the Women's Bureau. She knows her subject and presents the material fully and clearly. Her figures are based upon those of 1950 since this was the

latest year in which individuals in the United States reported their occupations in an official house-to-house census.

The fields employing women in large numbers are, after home-making, in this order: secretarial and other clerical work; medicine and other allied fields; entertainment; social and religious work; home economics; literary activities; business; government, politics, and law; social sciences, natural sciences, and engineering; transportation, broadcasting, and agriculture.

Each field is discussed in a separate chapter, telling the characteristics of the work and the necessary qualifications of the worker, including educational preparation and detailed analysis of opportunities. A highly commendable feature is the excellent list of organization sources of further information which appears at the end of each chapter.

In the turmoil and confusion of today's world, one thing is very clear: as a nation we have an abundance of challenging jobs, many of them vitally important. Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell said, in an address in Detroit on December 2, that we must add 10 million workers to our labor force by 1965 if, as is expected, our need for goods and services reaches \$560 billion. In 1951, it was \$391 billion. We cannot afford to waste ability, energy, and ingenuity, whether the package is stamped His or Hers. Prejudices against women, and there are some, will dissolve in the face of this situation.

Those who counsel college girls may perform a real service by placing Mrs. Zapoleon's book in their hands. It will make them think about distant goals even if it does not provide exact information on how to get Joe to the altar. Perhaps Mrs. Zapoleon thought that a bright college girl would already know the answer to that one.

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William E. Kerstetter and Phillips Moulton, *An Experiment in General Education: Development and Evaluation*. Nashville, Tennessee: Board of Education, The Methodist Church, 1957. Pp. viii + 56. \$1.00.

It is apparent from this brief treatise that dynamic leadership can and does make an impact on the student, the faculty, and the curriculum. That this should be accomplished through the curriculum by the addition of four courses in philosophy, three of which are required of all students at Simpson College, is perhaps a unique innovation. It is possible that this method may best be applied in the relatively small, church-related institution such as this college represents.

Most readers will agree with President Kerstetter that unified insight

on the part of the student should be the goal of liberal education at Simpson College. Setting up the Vital Center Program (the four courses in philosophy previously referred to) was the device used to bring integration and meaning into the curricular experience of the student there. Unfortunately, there is no reference or evaluation to suggest that this was accomplished in any way or that it was accomplished to a greater or lesser degree than previously. This represents a most serious omission in Chapter 1.

The remainder of the book is a review of the summer project of the faculty to better orient themselves to the Vital Center Program. The college was fortunate to secure a grant with which to undertake this project. A two-week period from August 20-31 was set aside during which 18 or approximately half of the faculty participated in group meetings, conferences, and individual study of the materials and methods of the Vital Center Program.

It is apparent from the writing that this project was highly successful, as it was well planned and executed. However, again evaluation is lacking. One wonders whether many of the reported outcomes would not have been forthcoming through a similar attack on the advisement program of the college or some other aspect of the college program as it relates to students.

The important fact remains, however, that skilled leadership can bring a faculty together to study and plan in order that they may provide the kind of education which is compatible with their philosophy and which will produce a thinking, understanding, and integrated personality.

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Philip E. Jacob, *Changing Values in College: An Exploratory Study of the Impact of College Teaching*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. Pp. xvi + 174. \$3.50.

A group of eminent educators determined to investigate for the Hazen Foundation the outcomes of teaching general education courses in the social sciences. After preliminary survey of the possibilities and the resulting surprises, they changed the directions of the proposed study. The first sentence of the Foreword is quoted, "This study was undertaken to discover what happens to the values held by American college students as a result of the general education they secure in social science."

Since values are *caught* from classmates, atmosphere of the campus, inspiration of teachers, local conditions, and extracurricular activities, can much be *taught* to students in the classroom? Is the teacher's obligation

limited to the presentation of subject matter or should he consciously encourage "good citizenship, critical thinking, moral character"? To determine the possibilities of influencing a student's values, this study concerns the interrelationships already existing. Immediately, a serious obstacle becomes apparent—the diversity of methods used in studies already made, in interpretation of data, even in definitions of terms used. Emphasis has been placed upon the curricular rather than the extracurricular activities.

The specific questions to be answered are concerned with patterns of value, influence upon values of college experience, particularly instruction in courses of social science and their methods, influence of instructor, differences in institutions, and the student's own strength of personality. These subjects are so general and methods of evaluation of values are so unstandardized that Dr. Jacob and his Board see the whole study as having two stages, exploratory and experimental. The book tells of the exploratory stage.

Pages 13-129 give tables and other data gathered from the excellent bibliography called *Inventory of the Data*, which requires pages 139-174 to list with descriptive statements. Five general sources furnish much information regarding the American student. Several hundred other documents were examined to find answers and to find new questions. The reader who sets out to digest them all will probably illustrate the title of one source, "From Now to 2000 A.D."

The student of today is "gloriously contented" on his self-centered island, somewhat restricted by inherited and accepted codes of conduct in moral, religious, civic areas, but very tolerant of those who deviate from the general patterns, very loyal to *his* groups. How did he get into this condition? How can he be moved from it? Should the conditions be changed? These and many other questions arose as the study progressed. The great inconsistencies in the student seem to be the differences between belief and practice, which fact makes one wonder if a very desirable element has been omitted from teaching. Though self-centered in attitude, he does not relate the content of courses to himself. Perhaps an orientation course should be established on the thinking of John Donne regarding the tolling bell.

The other ten pages of the book are concerned with plans for the experimental part of the continued study as a complement to the exploratory part presently reported. Here the Board is very conscious of the lack of accepted methodology and the difficulties inherent in questioning students about their most interesting subject, themselves, with the expectation of obtaining reliable answers.

The book makes interesting reading, but sometimes is difficult to understand if the reader is not conditioned to the use of certain designations. For instance, in the SNRI distribution among selected groups, the

definitions were new to this non-social-science-oriented reader. S is for authoritarian stereopaths, who "accept statements which are traditionalized, ethnocentric, or stress authority and obedience in human relations. N subjects reverse the pattern." To offset the vagueness with which a reader might leave a table is a directness and clarity when some summaries are made. "Among the 'high faculty influence' colleges were Lewis and Clark, Macalester, Miami." "Harvard undergrads exhibit an unusual degree of respect for individualism and tolerance." This reader enjoyed cleverly worded passages like Table 1: We are the Masters of Our Fate; Religion—but not for living; Morality—with elbow room.

The book also suggests areas that might be explored separately from the main study. This reader is much interested in the personality of a college; you might enjoy investigating techniques to teach students how to apply to themselves what they have written on examination papers.

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Mortimer R. Proctor, *The English University Novel*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1957. Pp. ix + 228. Cloth, \$4.50; paper, \$3.50.

If asked the question, "Have you ever read a novel about life in Oxford or Cambridge?" the average reader might answer, "Well, I've read Dorothy Sayers' *Gaudy Night*, and then there was *Tom Brown's School-days*, but I guess that one really wasn't about either Oxford or Cambridge." Candidates for the Information Please phase of Doctors' Orals in Literature might be expected to rattle off titles like Max Beerbohm's *Zuleika Dobson* and Kingsley's *Alton Locke*; they might even add the information that Chaucer's clerk had been to Oxford. Confronted with this same question, Professor Proctor comes up with one hundred and seventy-five titles which deal in whole or in part with English university life.

Obviously, much has been written on the subject; equally obviously little of it has been memorable. With few exceptions, the great English novelists have avoided university fiction. In fact, most of the well-known nineteenth century novelists were not even university graduates. Dickens, Borrow, Trollope, Hardy, Conrad, Kipling, and all the women seem to have refrained from writing about the academic groves which they had not frequented. On the other hand, second-string writers and also-rans made considerable use of the locale. The final products were more documentary than literary.

Mr. Proctor examines all the documentation. He concludes that although many of the plots are improbable, the characters are frequently both real and significant. There is the essentially honest undergraduate, "capable of



supreme indifference to authority, . . . bent usually on pleasure, but surprisingly aware that in the final reckoning he must not be found wanting; very foolish at the beginning, a little less so at the end." There are also the time-wasters and the rascals, who "emerged from their universities with no clear idea of what they had accomplished, and no notion at all of what was to follow next." The important results of all this writing, Mr. Proctor concludes, is that it came to terms eventually with the old yet ever-new question, "What are the ends of a university education?" Or even more broadly, "What is a university?" In an indirect way, these novels supplemented the essays written by Newman and Arnold in favor of liberal education. Though they supplied ammunition to the Huxley-Spencer forces in their contention that nothing of any practical value was learned at the universities, they did, nevertheless, fortify the position of those who sided with Newman and *The Idea of a University*: that the development of the man was more important than the mere acquisition of data.

To make a complete record like this, with hundreds of references to, and quotations from, minor works, to produce summaries of scores of simple-minded plots in order to abstract the trends of these novels is a difficult assignment. Mr. Proctor has done well. His book, admittedly, can appeal only to a limited number of scholars; its principal value will be discovered in the library. Indeed, no college library can afford to be without it.

GEORGE S. MCCUE

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Myron F. Wicke, *Handbook for Trustees of Church-Related Colleges*. Nashville, Tennessee: Board of Education, The Methodist Church, 1957. Pp. 57. 75 cents.

For thirteen years, the Board of Education of the Methodist Church has published information and suggestions for trustees of church-related educational institutions. Requests for a summary of essential principles have resulted in this fifth number of *Studies in Christian Higher Education*.

The booklet is a succinct discussion of the rights and duties of trustees, emphasizing throughout their legislative nature as distinguished from the executive. Chapters on responsibilities, relations with the president, reports, relations of trustees and faculty, and relations of trustees and the Church, will be useful, not only to those in church-related colleges, but to those in others as well.

Like others in the series, the booklet is to be recommended to all those engaged in higher education.

S. A. N.



## In the Journals

E. T.

An editorial titled "The Stolen Years" by Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education, which appeared in the November issue of *School Life*, official journal of the Office of Education, so clearly states a problem of such magnitude that it should be read by all of us. The editorial is quoted in full.

"Of the 31.5 million children in our public schools last year, there were 2.3 million for whom we actually had no room.

"But we made room for them somehow. We *had* to. We crowded more desks into limited classrooms, we resorted to buildings not intended for school use, we went on half-day schedules. And in the end, we managed.

"In the end, however, we were not proud of what we had done. True, we had provided schools for those 2.3 million, but only a makeshift kind: crowded and inadequate quarters for 1.5 million of them; less than a full day for the other 840,000.

"We had done even worse. Every time we had opened the door to a classroom and ushered in another child, we had taken a little more space from each child already there. And so, in the end, we had crowded not only the 1.5 million but every one of their classmates.

"This year we're leaning on the old halfway measures again. Again, we *have* to, for our severe shortage of classrooms continues. Again, we are crowding millions of children into our schools. Again we are slashing the school day for hundreds of thousands more.

"For *all* these children and their teachers I feel a deep concern. But at this moment I want to concentrate on *those children who have only half-day schedules, whose teachers are burdened with double shifts*. What, actually, is happening to them in school?

"Children on half-day schedules attend school less than the 5 or 6 hours most States require as a minimum. If they are on the single 4-hour session so common nowadays, they are deprived of an hour a day, on the average. And by the end of a school year they have lost a full 2 months. Multiply 2 months by the number of years this condition continues, and you will see that elementary children alone could lose almost 2 full years of schooling.

"When we steal school hours and days and years from children, we rob them of much more than time.

"Obviously, something has to yield in a schoolday cut back to 4 hours: speech correction and remedial reading, for example . . . well-rounded health programs . . . music . . . supervised study.

"The closer we look, the longer the list of deprivations grows.

"Even reading, writing, and arithmetic, which the schools work hardest to preserve in the curtailed curriculum, are hurt by the change. Already we have impressive evidence that children in half-day sessions do not make the same gains in these subjects as full-time pupils.

"In fact, the half-time pupil may not ever really know the exhilaration of being expertly taught; for the double-shift school system, if it does not completely discourage the talented teacher, is certain to curb his art.

"Whether they attend in the mornings or in the afternoons, half-day children know the frustrating fatigue that follows on a tight schedule. They feel hurried; they are rarely relaxed; they never have quite enough time to finish a job. They have no time to dream, to linger with a thought.

"They share their desks and materials with the children in the shift that precedes or follows them. Not only do they miss the many small satisfactions of ownership and privacy, but they are often upset by the inevitable conflicts over property.

"The tensions pursue them even into their homes, where their unusual hours disrupt the family routines and build up stresses and strains in their family circles.

"Both at home and at school, half-day children miss the reassurance that comes from a firmly guiding hand.

"They miss it at home if their mothers work, as many do in this country, where every third married woman holds a job outside her household. Even on a full school schedule, the children of working mothers spend some unsupervised time at home; on a half-day schedule they spend even more. For too long each day they have no one to see that they use their time wisely and well. They get into mischief, develop bad habits, and all too often lose their feeling of security.

"At school they miss the advantages of supervised study, of supervised play. In the mass-instructed classroom they are neglected and submerged. The teachers, preoccupied with the complications of their double loads, cannot get to know their pupils individually. Thus the child who is not adjusting well to school, who has trouble making friends, is likely to be overlooked at the very time when sympathetic attention and wise supervision could still save him from unhappiness and failure.

"We rob them of *learning*, *serenity*, and *guidance*. We accuse ourselves; and we stand aghast at the magnitude of our theft. Without *learning*, this coming generation will be poorly equipped to work, to think, to serve their fellows. Without *serenity*, they will know no joy. Without *guidance*, they will find no wisdom."

In order that we do not hamper the education of both Negro and white children, Agnes E. Meyer urges moderation in the speed with which desegregation is attempted, in her article on "Race and the Schools" which appears in the January 1958 issue of *The Atlantic*. The burden of guiding this major social revolution is thrust upon school administrators and teachers who are already overworked. The school program must be supplemented by community projects as "the child's environment is far more educational than the school." The whole program of desegregation of New York City's schools has become a political issue and actions are apt to be taken without any regard for the effect upon the schools. The Commission on Integration, whose report has been accepted by the Board of Education of New York City, would ignore geographical districts and would zone schools in such a way as to have racially balanced schools. One gets the impression from this report that the minority group of white children exists only as pawns to achieve what are called "ethnically balanced schools." Children would be transported about the city and the school would no longer be a community-related institution. Administrative havoc would be increased if children are granted the right to go to any school of their choice. Two cases are before the New York courts in which Negro parents in Harlem are suing for the right to send their children to white schools in other areas. If Negro children are granted the right to go to any school of their choice, the same right must be allowed white children and Puerto Rican children. This ignores the importance of the child's environment for "a school district must be a natural neighborhood if the educational process is to reach the child's home." The Commission shows that it has no concern for educational standards when it recommends that different standards be used for the admission of Negroes and Puerto Ricans to the fine specialized high schools in New York City than are used for the admission of white students. ". . . we must not allow the process of desegregation to wreck our public school system."

On the other side of the ledger is the progress that has been made in the Louisville and the Washington, D.C., public school systems. In Washington, D.C., for instance, a biracial Board of Education has approved a homogeneous grouping at all levels, in order to reduce the range of differences in each class. For the senior high schools this has resulted in a four-sequence curriculum or a four-track system. It provides an honors curriculum for the most gifted students, a regular preparatory and a general curriculum for the second and third groups, and basic studies for the slow learners. This plan helps the academically retarded children, whether black or white, to catch up while protecting the scholastic needs of the brighter

children of both races. ". . . this is the kind of plan which our educators should have devised long ago, . . . to give each child the kind of education best suited to his capacities." It is frightening to contemplate the cultural lag that will result if the irresponsible action contemplated in Virginia, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Georgia is taken; that is, the closing of the schools rather than acceptance of desegregation. The problems in the North are not less difficult than in the South. Calm deliberation on the part of the Negro leadership is urgently needed. The NAACP leaders, for instance, may ignore the psychological problems of the Negro child when desegregation is too rapid although the teachers and the Negro parents are keenly aware of them. If the interests of the child and the effects on the educational standards are kept in mind, sound progress can be made with "deliberate speed." Hasty attempts at desegregation will only result in the retardation of all students and an increase in racial tensions.

## Reported to Us

M. M. C.

Ethelyn Toner was the honored "Washington Woman" in the October issue of the *Washington Alumnus*. Mrs. Toner entered the Registrar's Office at the University of Washington as a clerk in 1928. After serving as Acting Registrar during the war years she was named registrar in 1945. She has also been honored by the Seattle Club of Quota Club International, of which she is a member, as "woman of achievement." Although the operations she directs as registrar at the University of Washington include more than 20,000 students and a staff which averages 80 she has many offices and activities both official and community. She has had numerous committee assignments in AACRAO and served as second vice-president of the Association in 1950-51. She is a skilled home maker and has a hobby of growing African violets. The *Washington Alumnus* quotes her philosophy as: "With the constant growth of the University, we must guard constantly against handling students on a mass basis. We try, and want to make the students feel they are welcome from the time they apply until they graduate."

The fifth annual University of Wyoming Alumni Award for Outstanding Achievement was presented to Ralph McWhinnie at the Homecoming celebration in November 1957. Mr. McWhinnie was an honor graduate of the University of Wyoming in 1920 and later received the Master's degree from Stanford University.

He was appointed acting registrar at the University of Wyoming two months before his graduation in 1920 and has held the position of registrar since that time. He has been extremely active in both AACRAO and the Colorado-Wyoming ACRAO in addition to wide participation in University, fraternity, and Masonic affairs. In addition to many committee assignments in AACRAO and the Colorado-Wyoming ACRAO he served three terms as president of the Colorado-Wyoming Association and as president of the national association in 1949-50. He is on sabbatical leave this winter and is currently in Palo Alto, California.

"This is Your Life, Roy Carson" was presented to honor Mr. Carson at the November meeting of the Colorado-Wyoming Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Mr. Carson retires in June 1958 after over 30 years of service as Registrar at Colorado State College. A book of letters of appreciation from colleagues and friends was presented to him at the meeting. It was largely through the efforts of Mr. Carson that

the Colorado-Wyoming Association was formed in 1927. He has not only been active in the affairs of that association but has also been active in AACRAO for many years. It was through his efforts that the need for adequate transcripts was called to the attention of AACRAO. He has served on the committee on adequate transcripts since its inception.

Clarence Earl Dammon, Registrar and Director of Admissions at Purdue University since 1947, died June 9, 1957. He had joined the faculty at Purdue as instructor in English and Speech in 1929 and had served the University in many administrative capacities. He was named Director of Admissions in 1938 and assumed the post of Director of Admissions and Registrar upon the combining of the two offices in 1947.

Frank Hagemeyer, who had served as Registrar at Teachers College, Columbia University for the past 31 years, died suddenly on January 2. He joined the Teachers College staff in 1916 as an admissions clerk and was appointed in 1933 to the College faculty committee on fellowships and scholarships. He was named its chairman a year later and also headed up the Student Loan Fund. He was long active in AACRAO, served on many committee assignments, and was first vice-president of the association in 1940-41.

Richard A. Elson was named dean of students at Park College, Parkville, Mo., in September 1957. Harry J. Miller, formerly dean of students, is now director of admissions.

Robert Arthur Moore became Acting Registrar of the Central Baptist Theological Seminary on October 1, 1957. Previously he had been Assistant Director, Department of Public Relations. Mr. Moore succeeds Mrs. Loyce Nealy, who is now Secretary, Bookkeeper, and Clerk for the Kansas City Baptist Association.

"American school and college students are in critical danger of being intellectually smothered in a sea of irrelevant and obsolete subject matter, courses, and teaching methods," according to Dr. John E. Ivey, Jr., executive vice president of New York University. "This danger has been growing for years. It now threatens our very existence because of the widely accepted, naïve idea that the way to meet Russia's advances is to improve the scientific and technological power of America by adding heavier doses of science and mathematics to our curriculum."

Speaking at the Teacher Education Conference at the University of Georgia, Dr. Ivey said, "What is needed in American schools and colleges is no different since the advent of Sputniks I and II than before. Nor will



it change when the free world floods outer space with its own vehicles." The "real target" of our educational program, he said, should be the development of "intellectual power"—the ability to think, to learn, to evaluate evidence, to be mentally and culturally creative, to communicate, and to use competently mathematical symbols and tools to aid in these processes. This concept has either been lost or rejected.

"It is absurd to prescribe more concentration on science and more scholarships as the remedy even for a fraction of the weaknesses of American education," Dr. Ivey continued. "It is easy to forget that this country has never been a world leader in basic research and theory in the sciences. Our accomplishments in the field of nuclear energy depended heavily on the genius of refugee scientists from Europe. These men came out of cultures where the highest value was placed on the demonstration of intellectual excellence. The task of creating a social environment which would cultivate minds and men capable of scaling the highest peaks of scientific and scholarly excellence is one so gigantic that the patchwork of educational remedies suggested so far should be viewed as an affront to the destiny of the United States."

The curriculum of American schools and colleges, Dr. Ivey said, has grown in response to the increasing complexity and quantity of knowledge until students have been expected to absorb into their minds "endless blocks of subject matter—on the assumption that such blotter-like response to factual exposure would produce an educated human being." An educational system oriented to the creation of intellectual power, he pointed out, would find a very high percentage of our present curriculum content and teaching irrelevant or out of date.

"Nothing short of basic educational overhauling is going to change the intellectual climate of American society. As educators we must have the courage to produce an educational system equal to the intellectual challenges facing free men."

Wayne State University's College of Education and Graduate School again approve credit arrangements in connection with the Eleventh Annual European Travel Study Program in Comparative Education. Personally directed by Dr. Wm. Reitz, Professor of Education, the group will leave Detroit on June 18 and return on August 28, 1958. Visiting 12 countries during the 72-day journey, the program is designed to provide teachers, students, and other professional people with an opportunity to survey selected highlights of the life and culture of Western Europe.

Participants may earn up to 8 hours of undergraduate or graduate credit to apply on degree programs, for teaching certification, or for annual salary increments. Others may audit the program for purposes of personal enrichment.

A national institute for community-junior college science and mathematics teachers will be conducted this coming summer at Michigan State University.

A grant of \$47,400 by the State Board of Agriculture, Michigan State University's governing board, from the National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C., will finance the institute, the first of its kind in the nation.

The grant brings added recognition to the importance of the community-junior college movement in American education, according to Dr. Max S. Smith, head of the Michigan State University Office for Community-Junior College Cooperation.

There is an unprecedented demand for teachers of physical sciences and mathematics at this post-high school level of instruction because the community-junior college offers instruction in both the first two years of college work and in varied terminal programs of a technical-institute nature.

Primarily a business college since its inauguration on the higher education scene 92 years ago, Rider College expanded its curricula this year to include a liberal arts program leading to an A.B. degree.

Approximately 50 freshmen are now enrolled in the program which leads to a degree in one of three fields: English, History, or the Behavioral Sciences. As presently constituted, the three areas have a common core curriculum consisting of 54 semester hours designed to give a basic background in the humanities, the social studies, and the sciences. Students working toward an A.B. degree must also select one of the three major areas and complete a minimum of 30, but not more than 40, hours in his selected field. In addition the students must select two minor fields of concentration consisting of 18 hours each.

The expanded curriculum was designed to coincide with the physical plant expansion currently underway. A \$10,000,000 ten-year building program will move the entire college from Trenton to neighboring Lawrence Township.

An educational program, designed to enable medical ex-corpsmen to utilize their military service education and experience preparing for practice and licensure in professional nursing, was opened in September 1957 at Huron Road Hospital School of Nursing, Fenn College, Cleveland, Ohio. It is anticipated that the period of time to complete the professional nurse program will be shortened; however, this will be determined on an individual basis. Time and credit allowance for service experience will be based on individual performance on written and situational tests, administered at the School of Nursing, after admission. Transfer credit allowance

for USAFI courses will be determined according to the recommendations of the ACE when these courses fulfill any of the requirements for graduation. Entrance requirements in the program include: course work and experience in the medical corps of one of the three branches of the Armed Forces, a high school diploma, evidence of good health, and an aptitude for nursing. The school is coeducational and the age stipulation has been waived for ex-corpsmen.

The experimental program is being conducted under the aegis of the Institute of Research and Service in Nursing Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, and is sponsored by the National League for Nursing under a grant from the Rockefeller Brothers Fund. Prospective students who would be interested in this type of program should write to the Huron Road Hospital School of Nursing at Fenn College, 1851 Belmore Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio.

The Institute on College and University Administration at the University of Michigan will be held again this summer from July 7 to 11, inclusive. The themes for discussion and the resource leaders will include: curriculum administration, Frank R. Kille; institutional self-studies, Floyd W. Reeves; developmental programs, Paul R. Franz, Jr., and Alan W. MacCarthy; administrative organization and efficiency, H. J. Heneman of the firm Cresap, McCormick and Paget; and trends in higher education affecting administration, Algo D. Henderson, who, with the assistance of James M. Davis, directs the Institute. The Institute is under the auspices of the Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University. Last July, the enrollment, which was limited to sixty, included 23 presidents or persons from the president's office, 26 deans, and 11 others. They attended from 21 states.

The liberal arts college is often overlooked as a source of the future teachers that America so badly needs. At Antioch College this past June more degrees were granted in education (15 per cent of the graduates) than in any other field. In addition other Antioch graduates will go into college teaching after taking advanced studies at universities. The values of realistic experience gained through the co-operative plan are clear. The varieties of experience possible for undergraduates are almost endless, for students may work with public and private schools at all levels, summer camps, social agencies, adult education programs, and so on. Last year jobs for Antioch students in the field of education ranged from The Country Day School in St. Petersburg, Florida, to The Frontier College for immigrants in Canada, and from the Gesell Institute of Child Development in Connecticut to Camp Hi-Hill of the Long Beach, California, Public Schools.

Oxford University and Northwestern University will co-operate in a new American history fellowship program for Oxford graduates. The George W. Ochs-Oakes Senior scholarship has enabled Queens College, Oxford, to establish a program involving one year of graduate study at Oxford and a second year at Northwestern. The scholarship is designed to encourage increased study of American history by English scholars and will be awarded irrespective of their previous course of study or their intended career. The scholarship provides room, board, tuition, and £100 a year while the scholar is attending Oxford. Northwestern will provide the scholar with free tuition and a stipend of \$1,000 for the year 1958-59, the first year the scholar will attend Northwestern. It is likely the annual stipend will be supplemented from other sources.

An increase in faculty retirement fund deductions at George Washington University has placed the University above all other local colleges and universities in one phase of faculty fringe benefits. The University will increase its contribution toward faculty retirement from 5 per cent to 8 per cent. The University percentage does not include Social Security.

On October 9, 1957, the City College played host to 71 Registrars and Admissions Officers and their assistants, representing 23 colleges within the five boroughs of New York City. A very simple program was planned including a "Question Box" type of discussion period in the afternoon followed by a short dinner meeting. The discussion period, which was chaired by Henry Rossi of New York University and Bernard Ireland of Columbia University, gave the junior professional members of the staffs an opportunity to get the feel of what is attempted at national and regional meetings. Since the junior members of the staff rarely have the opportunity to attend national or even regional meetings, it was felt that the local meeting was quite helpful to them.

For his outstanding contributions to democratic education in the Orient, Genshu Asato, president of the University of the Ryukyus, was awarded the honorary Doctor of Laws degree by Michigan State University at a meeting of the Michigan State University's Academic Assembly January 16, 1958. The institution which President Asato heads, located at Naha on Okinawa, has grown since its inception seven years ago to a university with an enrollment of some 2,000 students. President Asato was cited for his contributions to the welfare of the Ryukyuan people and for the development of a university which is having considerable influence on higher education in Asia.

Since 1951, Michigan State University experts in various fields have been working with the University of the Ryukyus advising the faculty in

the organization and development of that institution under a project being carried out under contracts with the U. S. Army.

The Educational Testing Service has announced that the date for the 1958 Scholarship Qualifying Test administration will be Tuesday, October 21, 1958.

An indication of the extent of interest in the Scholarship Qualifying Test is the fact that this year more than 255,800 seniors from 13,700 schools participated in the program. The scores of these students will be considered by such scholarship programs as the National Merit Scholarship Program and the National Honor Society Scholarship Program as well as by college scholarship officers.

The U. S. Office of Education has reported that college enrollments have set a new record this year for the sixth year in a row and will climb substantially with the opening of the second semester.

A total of 3,068,000 students enrolled in 1,890 colleges and universities early last fall, an increase of 4.1 per cent over the 2,947,000 who enrolled in the fall of 1956, the Office reported.

Last fall's enrollment was 45 per cent above fall enrollments in 1951, the year of lowest enrollments since World War II, and 25 per cent above 1949, the peak year for enrollments in the immediate postwar years.

According to U. S. Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick, college and university enrollments are expected to climb to an all-time high of approximately 3,460,000 during the remainder of the school year. Dr. Derthick pointed out that the 45 per cent increase in college enrollments since 1951 compares with an increase of only about 2 per cent during the same period in the number of persons 18 to 21 years old.

Freshman enrollment in colleges and universities reached a record of 730,000 last fall, 0.9 per cent higher than in 1956.

Nearly two-thirds of the 1957 college student body—2,003,000 of the total 3,068,000—are men.

The survey findings are reported in the January 1958 issue of *Higher Education*, a publication of the Office of Education. A complete report will be published in the next few months. The ten institutions which led in the number of students this year are: University of California (all campuses), 41,598; University of Minnesota (all campuses), 35,852; New York University, 31,068; State University of New York, all campuses except the Agricultural and Technical Institutes, 29,883; City College of the City of New York, 28,181; Columbia University, 26,787; University of Michigan, 26,370; University of Illinois, 25,920; University of Wisconsin (all campuses), 24,873; and Ohio State University, 22,611.

Total opening enrollment in liberal arts colleges gained 6.5 per cent



over 1956; junior colleges, 6.2 per cent; teachers colleges, 6 per cent; technological schools, 3.4 per cent; separately organized professional schools (other than teachers colleges and technological schools), 3.3 per cent; universities, 2 per cent; theological and religious schools, 1 per cent.

Greatest increase in first-time students last fall was in other separately organized professional schools, which gained 9 per cent over 1956. Increases also were reported for teachers colleges, 4.4 per cent; junior colleges, 2.9 per cent; theological and religious schools, 2.5 per cent; and liberal arts colleges, 2.4 per cent. Decreases were reported by universities, 2.9 per cent, and technological schools, 0.6 per cent.

Publicly controlled institutions reported a 5.9 per cent gain in number of students over the fall of 1956, while privately controlled institutions listed 1.8 per cent more than last year. First-time enrollment in both types of schools increased 0.9 per cent.

Of the total college population, 58 per cent were attending publicly controlled institutions in 1957 and 57.1 per cent in 1956.

States with increases of 10 per cent or more included Delaware, 14.4 per cent (including enrollment in a newly reclassified institution not counted in 1956 enrollments); Virginia, 13.9 per cent; Maine, 12.8 per cent; Arkansas, 11.7 per cent; and New Mexico, 10 per cent.

Fewer college students were reported in 3 states. Largest decrease was in Nevada (5.2 per cent).

Delaware—with the reclassified institution again a factor—reported a 47.2 per cent increase in first-time enrollment. Also reporting a gain of 10 per cent or more were Arizona, 24 per cent; Oregon, 14.2 per cent; Maine and Massachusetts, 12.1 per cent each; and New Jersey, 11.1 per cent.

The number of students attending college for the first time declined in 17 States and in the U. S. service academies. Decreases of 5 per cent or more were reported in South Dakota (9.7 per cent), Indiana (8.2 per cent), Ohio (7.8 per cent), Virginia (7.4 per cent), Utah (7 per cent), Georgia (6.2 per cent), Oklahoma (5.3 per cent), New Hampshire (5 per cent), and the U. S. service academies (15.9 per cent).

The U. S. Office of Education has announced that the latest in a series of surveys disclosed that enrollments in various fields of engineering last fall totalled 297,077, compared with 277,052 a year ago, an increase of more than 20,000. The new figures show a climb of 131,440 in engineering enrollments since 1951. That year—lowest for such enrollments since the surveys were started in 1949—engineering attracted only 165,637 students. Conducted jointly by the American Society for Engineering Education and the Office of Education, the latest survey covered 221 institutions offering engineering degrees, of which 134 have graduate engineering programs.

Both undergraduate and graduate enrollments were up last fall, com-



pared with a year ago. Those studying for their first engineering degree increased from 251,121 to 268,761, those studying for their master's degree from 22,529 to 24,136 and those studying for their doctor's degree from 3,402 to 4,180.

Engineering degrees, also covered by the survey, totalled 37,039 for the academic year of 1956-57. This was 10,036 more than the low year of 1953-54 but 21,091 fewer than 1949-50, the highest year in engineering graduations since the surveys were started. The Office of Education said the large number of engineering graduates that year was due in considerable part to the financial assistance available to veterans. Largest numbers of bachelor's engineering degrees conferred last school year were in electrical engineering, 8,108; mechanical, 7,907; civil, 4,683; chemical, 2,818; industrial, 1,926; aeronautical, 1,109; general, 838; petroleum 650; metallurgical, 577; agricultural, 401; and architectural, 331.

Eighty-eight of the nation's outstanding college graduates are pursuing their studies toward doctoral degrees under fellowship grants totaling almost \$350,000 from the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund. Thirty-four of the predoctoral fellowships were offered on a competitive basis and 54 were assigned to specific educational institutions which nominated the students in specific fields. Stipends for the students range from \$1,750 to \$2,500 per annum, depending upon marital status and dependents. In addition, tuition and fees are paid and an unrestricted grant of \$1,000 is made to the institution which the student attends.

The fields of study include the Physical Sciences, Engineering, Industrial Management, Arts and Sciences, Graduate Law, Business, Ceramics, Mathematics, Economics, Psychology, Sociology, Political Science, and Public Administration. The fellowship grants are part of approximately \$1½ million in aid to higher education which General Electric and the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund are expending this year.

In addition to the fellowships, the aid includes 50 scholarship awards, 300 summer fellowships for secondary school science and mathematics teachers, help in equipping laboratories to about 50 colleges and universities, and approximately 300 educational loans to employees. In addition, the Educational and Charitable Fund annually matches approximately 5,000 employee gifts to institutions of higher learning under its Corporate Alumnus Program.

The McGraw-Hill Publishing Company has announced establishment of a program whereby the company will match gifts made by its employees to institutions of higher learning. Under the plan, any company employee, college educated or not, may make a contribution and McGraw-Hill will give the same amount to the same institution.

The only restriction on the gift-maker is that he be a regular employee with at least one year's service with McGraw-Hill. Any nonprofit, accredited institution of higher learning (junior college, four-year college, technical institute, community college, university, postgraduate institution) located within the United States or its possessions is eligible under the program. So, too, is a well established institution of this type not yet accredited, but certified by a responsible board of overseers to be performing creditable educational work for its community.

In order to give the program as wide application as possible, the company has made certain restrictions on the amounts. The limit on each employee's gift to be matched by the company will be \$500, and not more than \$1,000 will be given by the company to any one institution, up to the limit of funds appropriated. McGraw-Hill will match its employee's gifts in the order in which it learns from the institutions that the gifts have been received.

McGraw-Hill also sponsors 20 Merit Scholarships, while individual publications give fellowships for advanced study in engineering. The company has had for many years a policy of paying fifty per cent of the tuition for approved courses taken by its employees. Recently, it has added supplemental grants for the institutions giving these courses, because the tuition they charge rarely covers full cost of the education provided.

The National Science Foundation has granted the University of North Dakota \$57,500 to sponsor an Institute for High School Teachers of Science and Mathematics in the summer of 1958. The institute will be directed by J. Donald Henderson, associate professor of physics at the University of North Dakota. Forty-five high school teachers will be selected to attend the eight week institute beginning June 16. Courses designed for high school teachers in the fields of chemistry, physics, mathematics, and meteorology will be offered. Supplementary material will be presented in a seminar for the physical sciences by visiting lecturers, discussion groups and project work. The program is designed to strengthen the subject material background of teachers whose training has been limited in certain fields.

The University of Michigan has received a \$400,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation to support a new Center for the Study of Higher Education. The principal objective of the Center will be the training of administrators for colleges and universities. It will be under the direction of Algo D. Henderson, Professor of Higher Education at the University of Michigan since 1950. The grant will finance several fellowships in higher

education which will permit selected young administrators, without loss of salary, to spend a semester or a year at the university.

Present plans call for the selection of from three to seven fellows each year. Those chosen would take part in seminars in higher education, do research on special problems, or obtain internship experiences in a variety of administrative offices and institutions. The grant also will permit the University to assist doctoral candidates who aim to seek future administrative positions in colleges or universities.

The General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund announced grants totaling \$50,000 to 20 college physics departments. Each of the selected liberal arts colleges will receive unrestricted grants of \$2,500 under the Fund's new College Science Grants Program. How the money will be used to strengthen the physics departments is left to the discretion of the recipient college.

The College of Business Administration at Loyola University is introducing two new combined courses this year, business-and-journalism and business-and-mathematics. They are designed to give students basic study in business and electives in either mathematics or journalism as a field of concentration, with business courses supplying a knowledge of economics and accounting and the electives serving as preparations for careers in those fields.

Writing market quotations and covering local business events for newspapers will be included in the business-and-journalism study. Business-and-math will offer market research and electronic accounting and a background for planning, direction, and control.

A unique experimental student teaching project is underway at Brown University this year, where 20 senior engineering students have been assigned to counsel and assist in the teaching of the 100 freshmen entering the engineering division.

Each student teacher supervises the work of a group of five freshmen, giving one hour a week to a special class for discussion of the basic course, attending lectures with the new students and giving each freshman a half-hour personal conference each week. They will also grade homework and go over the students' papers with them. They will be paid \$600 for the year's work.

The program, made possible by a \$15,000 grant by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, has a dual purpose. Primarily it is designed to aid freshmen in acquiring effective habits of study. It is hoped also that it will initiate qualified upperclassmen into active teaching and perhaps aid in lessening the acute shortage of teachers.

A spokesman for the Fund for the Advancement of Education revealed it has compiled cost estimates which indicate "American education on all levels of instruction may realize substantial savings in the future use of educational television." The cost estimate was made in connection with experiments conducted at Pennsylvania State University during the 1956-57 academic year and it compared TV instruction with conventional teacher-classroom presentation. By keeping detailed records and costs of presenting four subjects, Penn State realized a saving of nearly 40 per cent through the use of the electronic educational tool, said Mr. Weiss. TV classes in elementary psychology, accounting, air science, and sociology were presented to students last year at a cost of \$52,000, and the same subjects utilizing conventional classroom methods of instruction previously amounted to \$92,000, he added.

Mr. Weiss told the seminar that "the use of in-school television throughout the United States has in many instances proven its usefulness without damage to the quality of the learning experience."

He pointed to the significance of the Penn State data by intimating that on a national scale "it is logical to assume the same pattern of saving will be found." Such important savings in television instruction will permit greater increases in teacher salaries, as well as provide additional funds for physical plant expansion.

Emphasizing the great potential available for student instruction via television, Mr. Weiss, pointed out that a program of physics instruction was viewed by 500 students in the Pittsburgh school system during 1956. "This year, in co-operation with the city's educational outlet and supported by Foundation money, the same physics program available on film, is now being viewed by 75,000 students in 14 states," he said.

Wisconsin's publicly supported institutions of higher learning are drawing largely from the upper ranks of the high school classes, according to a report released here by the joint staff of the Coordinating Committee for Higher Education.

Newly compiled figures on the scholastic rankings of incoming college freshmen revealed that of every 100 freshmen in the state colleges and the state university, 71 were from the upper half of their high school graduating class scholastically. Forty-two were in the top fourth of their class.

Only six out of each 100 freshmen were from the lower fourth of their high school class. The figures also showed that while more men than women enter college, the proportion of high ranking women students exceeds that of men.

"Only 32 per cent of the men students were in the top fourth of their

graduating class," the report said. "On the other hand, 58 per cent of the women students were in this classification."

Some thirty of the 660 freshmen entering Columbia College this year already have up to six college credits earned not on the campus, but in high school.

Participants in the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board, these exceptional students took college level work in their secondary schools and then were given the Board's advanced placement examinations. Upon their admission to Columbia College, their examination results were referred for appraisal to the appropriate departments and the members of the new Class of '61 were assigned a maximum of six academic credits and recommended for advanced courses.

Thus, for example, a student who does well in the Board's French examination is being permitted to bypass elementary French and go directly into courses considerably more advanced than those taken by the average freshman.

Under the new program, too, he receives as many as six academic credits, depending on the degree of excellence he displayed in the examination.

"This year," explained Charles C. Cole, Jr., associate dean, "credits are being awarded in recognition of the excellent teaching that is being done in many high schools, public and private. Our own placement exams were designed to eliminate what little duplication existed between the high school and college programs. Now, under the new policy of awarding credits for exceptional preparation, an advanced placement student will find it possible to take graduate level work in his senior year. This would be far more difficult had he not received the bonus credits."

A change in the College Board policy which governs the reporting of scores received on the Scholastic Aptitude Test and Achievement Tests will give schools and colleges complete discretion in the release of score information to their enrolled students beginning with the tests administered in December, 1958. Long-standing regulations which will continue throughout the current academic year permit the release of scores to preliminary (junior year) candidates but require that senior scores be kept confidential by the schools and colleges which receive them. The scores are not reported to candidates by the Board.

In voting to make this change school and college members of the Board concluded a series of discussions and committee actions which acknowledged on the one hand the desirability of dispelling the atmos-



phere of secrecy which has surrounded the test scores and on the other the difficulty of explaining to students the meaning of individual scores and their relation to other criteria of admission established by individual colleges. An important provision of the proposal, as presented by the Committee on Examinations, and approved by the Board, was appointment of a subcommittee on the preparation of materials to assist schools in score interpretation and clerical processes.

The Esso Education Foundation has announced 345 financial grants totaling \$1,332,760 to educational institutions for the academic year 1957-58, bringing the total grants made by the Foundation in its three-year existence to over \$3,600,000.

The 1957-58 financial aid program is in addition to a grant of \$1,500,000, announced earlier, made by Standard Oil Company (New Jersey) to the Esso Education Foundation for a special program to advance the teaching of science and engineering. The science education grant was given as part of Jersey Standards' program marking its 75th anniversary this year.

These most recent grants represent an increase of 48 over the 297 made last year and include 36 women's colleges, the largest number to receive grants since establishment of the Foundation. Increased aid to women's colleges is being made to help prepare graduates of these institutions for a constantly widening range of opportunity for their talents in the fields of arts, sciences, letters, and industry, the Foundation said.

Unrestricted grants for undergraduate education totaling \$726,000 are made this year to 282 colleges and universities, including 84 schools which have not previously received unrestricted grants. Of the 282 colleges, 166 offer primarily liberal arts and general courses including teacher training; 14 are professional and technical schools; and 104 are liberal arts and general with one or more professional schools.

Enrollment in 139 of these schools is less than 1,000 students and included in the group are 201 coeducational institutions, 49 men's colleges, and 34 women's colleges. Nondenominational as well as Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish-sponsored colleges are represented in these grants.

The Foundation granted \$85,000 to the National Fund for Medical Education, an increase of \$10,000 over last year. An increase was also made in this year's grant to the United Negro College Fund from \$25,000 to \$50,000 for distribution to the 31 schools it represents.

This year for the first time a grant in the sum of \$10,000 was made to the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, a voluntary association of colleges which are officially committed to an active program of developing and improving their individual educational programs in order to meet



more effectively the demands of higher education. The group was established as a service organization in the spring of 1956 to help its members collectively in ways beyond their means individually.

The Foundation also made capital grants to 22 institutions totaling \$224,000 and research grants to 22 colleges amounting to \$162,760. Nine projects of a continuing nature which the Foundation has supported in the past at a number of colleges and universities were granted \$44,500, while grants for new projects of this type were \$11,500.

The Ford Foundation made new grants and appropriations totaling \$83 million for education and other programs of national importance during the last fiscal year, according to the 1957 annual report covering the period from October 1, 1956 to September 30, 1957. Actions during 1957 brought to more than \$1 billion the Foundation's grants and appropriations since it was established in 1936. The largest single grant was \$24.5 million to expand nationally the Woodrow Wilson fellowship program to combat the shortage of college teachers. Grants and appropriations in the first quarter (October through December) of its 1958 fiscal year totaled \$14,284,550, and included:

A \$250,000 grant to Berea College, Kentucky, for a study of the problems of the Southern Appalachian Mountain region. With the co-operation of universities and community organizations, Berea will make a comprehensive survey of economic, sociological, and educational conditions of underdeveloped and culturally isolated groups in Kentucky, West Virginia, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. The study will seek information on the needs and problems of the eight and a half million people in the region, with particular attention to migration from rural areas to industrial cities.

An appropriation of \$100,000 for the Educational Television and Radio Center at Ann Arbor, Michigan, for an inquiry into the future financial support of educational television. This will include a study of tax funds, tuition, gifts, endowments, and other funds from foundations, corporations, and other organizations and their potential for sustained support of educational television.

A grant of \$1 million to aid Oxford University's program of restoring its historical buildings.

A grant of \$47,500 to the Association of the Bar of the City of New York Fund, Inc., for a study of problems raised by Federal conflict-of-interest statutes in recruiting noncareer government executives.

A grant of \$1 million to Harvard University for various international studies programs. Harvard will use half of the grant for its Center for International Studies, which will focus on research and advanced training

in political-military strategy, the Atlantic Community, problems of underdeveloped countries, the Far East, and international affairs. The other half will be used by the Graduate School of Public Administration to train government officials from underdeveloped areas, for training and research on the recent economic history of China, and for training of undergraduate-college teachers in East Asian studies.

A grant of \$300,000 to Northwestern University for legal research and graduate and professional training in the fields of criminal law and criminology.

Grants of \$500,000 and \$300,000 respectively to the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics and the Delhi School of Economics for social science education in India. The social science programs of these and other Indian institutions will be aided by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Center for International Studies under a grant of \$750,000.

Totals for various programs were: education, \$138,000; economic development and administration, \$1,437,100; international understanding, training, and research, \$6,329,750; international legal studies, \$421,000; urban and regional problems, \$462,000; citizen participation in public affairs, \$673,250; youth development, \$150,000; science and engineering, \$216,000; overseas development, \$4,157,450; and miscellaneous, \$300,000.

For the first time in a decade, the Association of American Universities has approved an increase in its membership by the inclusion of a limited number of institutions of national prominence with a sound and proven record in the fields of scholarship and teaching. The action was taken at the association's annual meeting, and following a ballot of the membership these four institutions have been admitted: Tulane University, Purdue University, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, and Pennsylvania State University.

## Regional Associations

### *Congratulations!*

The following people have been elected to honorary membership in their Regional Associations during the past year:

<i>John McHugh</i> Examiner De Paul University	Illinois Association
<i>Edith Leifheit</i> Registrar Northern Illinois State College	Illinois Association
<i>John A. Hunter</i> Dean of the Junior Division (formerly Registrar) Louisiana State University	Louisiana Association
<i>Harry Crawford</i> Registrar Sault Ste. Marie Branch of the Michigan College of Mining and Technology	Michigan Association
<i>Harry G. Decker</i> Registrar Calvin College	Michigan Association
<i>Paul E. Hincamp</i> Registrar Hope College	Michigan Association
<i>John C. Hoekje</i> Dean of Administration Western Michigan University	Michigan Association
<i>Eugene F. Bradford</i> Registrar Cornell University	Middle States Association
<i>Hazel Feagans</i> Registrar American University	Middle States Association
<i>J. Gilbert Quick</i> Registrar University of Pittsburgh	Middle States Association
<i>John C. Weldin</i> Dean of Administration and Registrar The University of Rhode Island	New England Association

<i>Helen Clark</i>	Ohio Association
Assistant Registrar	
Ohio State University	
<i>Frank Dilley</i>	Ohio Association
Director of Admissions and	
University Examiner	
Ohio University	
<i>Carrie McKnight</i>	Ohio Association
Registrar	
Muskingum College	
<i>Myrtle McKittrick</i>	Pacific Coast Association
Registrar	
Humboldt State College	
<i>Joe E. West</i>	Pacific Coast Association
Dean of Summer Sessions and	
Educational Services (formerly Registrar)	
San Jose State College	
<i>Charles B. Wood</i>	Pacific Coast Association
Registrar	
University of British Columbia	
<i>Anna D. Linn</i>	Texas Association
Registrar	
Sul Ross State College	
<i>Clifford H. Perea</i>	Texas Association
Registrar	
Trinity University	

#### COLORADO-WYOMING ACRAO

On November 15 and 16, 1957, the Colorado-Wyoming Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held its annual meeting at the Albany Hotel in Denver. The first session consisted of four parts dealing with office forms, admissions, classroom space and transcripts, and registration. Later that afternoon another session discussed the problems of terminal courses and terminal programs.

The banquet session was highlighted with an address by Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO, who stressed the importance of the combined efforts of all those who work in admissions, registration, and records in making an invaluable contribution to the community, the state, and the nation.

At the business meeting the next morning, reports from standing committees were presented dealing with population and enrollment statistics, high school relations and uniform applications, and professional development and ethics.

The next meeting of the Association will be held at Loretto Heights College.

The following officers were elected for 1957-1958:

President: Claudine Waterbury, Colorado State University, Fort Collins

Vice-President: Harold Kuhlman, Colorado Woman's College, Denver

Secretary-Treasurer: Virgil O'Connor, U. S. Air Force Academy, Denver

#### ILLINOIS ACRAO

The Pere Marquette State Park at Grafton, Illinois, was the setting for the 35th annual meeting of the Illinois Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, which met on October 25 and 26, 1957.

The first session included a panel on the topic "The New Look in College and High School." Dean C. W. Sanford and Professor Charles Roberts of the University of Illinois presented addresses. Paul Dietz, of the Principia Upper School, spoke on "The New Approach to High School Mathematics."

Honorary memberships were given to Hertha Voss, Registrar at Western Illinois State College, and John C. McHugh, Registrar at De Paul University.

On October 25 the business meeting included reports on college days; late and multiple applications; records, retention, and storage; and college credit for high school courses and the Advanced Placement Program. There was discussion of the new State Certification laws for Illinois. Esther Kirchhoefer reported on the meeting of the Council on Regional Associations in Denver. The bylaws were amended to read "that the immediate past-president shall represent the Association on the Committee of Regional Associations of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers." The 1958 meeting of the Illinois ACRAO will be held at the Sherman Hotel in Chicago on October 23 and 24.

The new officers elected were:

President: Mrs. Gretchen M. Happ, The Principia

Vice-President: Oscar Olson, North Park College

Secretary: Edward Stout, De Paul University

Treasurer: Donald Mackenzie, North Central Association

#### KENTUCKY ACRAO

On October 24, 1957, the Kentucky Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met for their annual meeting at the University of Kentucky in Lexington. John Rhoads, Vice-Provost of Temple University and former President of AACRAO, began the day's activities by speaking on the current situation in increased enrollments and assisted the group

in acquainting them with procedures and principles in carrying out enrollment prediction and space utilization studies.

Following a luncheon the group reassembled for a panel discussion centering around the report of the Kentucky Council of Higher Education. A report of the Enrollment Committee of this Council was discussed in detail.

The officers elected for the coming year are:

President: E. E. Sheils, Cumberland College

Vice-President: Sister M. Irmina, Villa Madonna College

Secretary: Pearl Anderson, Transylvania College

Regional Representative: John F. Houchens, University of Louisville

#### MICHIGAN ACRAO

The annual meeting of the Michigan Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held on November 15 at Marygrove College in Detroit under the direction of President George Lauer of Central Michigan College.

The meeting included the following committee reports: Relationships with AACRAO; Relationships with the Secondary Schools; Registration Statistics; Surveys on Changing Course Elections, Preregistration Procedures, and Miscellaneous Procedures.

At the noon luncheon honorary memberships were presented to:

Robert S. Linton, Michigan State University, East Lansing

Harry L. Crawford, Sault Ste. Marie Branch, Michigan College of Mining and Technology

Harry Decker, Calvin College, Grand Rapids

Paul Hincamp, Hope College, Holland

John C. Hoekje, Sr., Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo

The afternoon session dealt with the uniform application blank, college days, and processing applications for admission to college.

The officers for the coming year are:

President: Harold Wisner, Ferris Institute, Big Rapids

Vice-President: Sister Miriam Fidelis, Marygrove College, Detroit

Secretary: August Brandt, Flint Junior College, Flint

Treasurer: Lyvonne Riisberg, Grand Rapids Junior College

#### MIDDLE STATES ACROA

The Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars and Officers of Admission held its 26th annual meeting in Atlantic City in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on November 29 and 30, 1957.



A social hour for members and guests was held on Friday afternoon. On Saturday morning, November 30, a Question Box session was conducted under the direction of Robert L. Taylor of the City College of New York. This was followed by a panel program devoted to "Educational Officers and Financial Officers: Their Authority and Responsibility in Planning Future Enrollments." Miss Irene Davis of Johns Hopkins University was chairman of this program.

At 11:00 on Saturday morning two sessions were held. One dealt with the topic "Changing Patterns in the Relations Between Secondary Schools and Admissions Officers." The chairman was William G. Fletcher of the University of Delaware. The second session, under the direction of Endicott A. Batchelder of the University of Pittsburgh, dealt with the topic "The Registrar as an Educational Statesman." The luncheon meeting was highlighted by an address by Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO.

The officers elected for 1957-1958 are:

President: Catherine R. Rich, The Catholic University of America

Vice-President: Herbert H. Williams, Cornell University

Secretary: Henry F. Rossi, New York University

Treasurer: Grace N. Brown, Hood College

Editor: Robert E. Tschan, Pennsylvania State University

Past President: George A. Kramer, Rutgers, State University of New Jersey

#### MISSOURI ACRAO

The 1957 annual convention of the Missouri Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held on the Stephens College campus, Columbia, Missouri, on October 22-23, 1957. Charles McLane, Director of Admissions of the University of Missouri, spoke on the subject, "How High Is Higher Education?" followed by a panel discussion of Dr. McLane's paper. In the second general session Richard M. Keefe, Director of Admissions of St. Louis University, was chairman of a discussion, "How Do *You* Do It?"

The banquet featured an address by Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO. The following morning Irvin F. Coyle of the University of Missouri spoke on the Study of Higher Education in Missouri.

In the business meeting it was agreed to establish a committee to make a study of the advantages and disadvantages of forming a regional association with neighboring states. The following persons were elected to office for 1957-1958:

President: H. E. Mueller, University of Missouri

Vice-President: Elizabeth Halpin, Webster College

Secretary-Treasurer: Neil Freeland, Christian College

### NORTH CAROLINA ACRAO

The 34th annual meeting of the North Carolina Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met in the Hotel Robert E. Lee and Salem College in Winston-Salem, North Carolina, on November 6 and 7, 1957, under the direction of President Hazel Morrison of Flora Macdonald College.

The first meeting emphasized a Question Box session. At the banquet session Gordon W. Blackwell, Chancellor of the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, presented an address. Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO, brought greetings from the national Association.

On November 7 reports were presented and discussed relative to the annual AACRAO meeting in Denver, the meeting of the Southern ACRAO, and the Committee on Constitution and By-Laws.

The following officers were elected for the year 1957-1958:

President: K. D. Raab, North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina, Raleigh

Vice-President: Robert R. Chapman, Mars Hill College, Mars Hill

Secretary: Margaret Simpson, Salem College, Winston-Salem

Treasurer: Mrs. Margaret Perry, Wake Forest College, Wake Forest

### PACIFIC COAST ACRAO

The Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held its 31st annual conference in San Francisco on November 10-13, 1957, under the leadership of its president, Louis L. Windmiller.

A clinic for new members was held on Sunday afternoon, November 10, and a reception was conducted Sunday evening. A tour of San Francisco was made on Monday morning. The first general session was held on Monday afternoon, which featured an address "Objectives of a Liberal Education" by Philip H. Rhinelander of Stanford University. AACRAO president Roy Armstrong brought greetings from the national Association.

On Tuesday the general session heard an address on Research Problems in Higher Education by Thomas R. McConnell of the University of California. A part of the morning was devoted to a session on foreign credentials led by Herman A. Spindt.

The Tuesday afternoon program included three workshops on registration, retention, and research. The banquet session that evening heard John E. Arnold present "A Look at Creativity." The general session on Wednesday morning presented a panel on legal questions and a Question Box.

The 1958 conference of the Pacific Coast ACRAO will be held at Long Beach, California.

The new officers for 1957-1958 are:

President: Edgar L. Lazier, University of California, Los Angeles  
Vice-President I: David P. Arata, University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara  
Vice-President II: C. W. Quinley, Jr., Eastern Washington College of  
Education, Cheney  
Secretary: Genevieve Humiston, Cerritos Junior College, Norwalk  
Treasurer: David L. Windsor, University of Arizona, Tucson

#### TEXAS ACRAO

The Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars held its 36th annual meeting in San Antonio, Texas, on November 19-21, 1957. The first session included an address by Roy Armstrong, AACRAO president, entitled "Selective Admissions Practices of our Southern States," which dealt with testing and proper placement of students, admission with advanced standing from high school, and accelerated college programs for the superior students. The next meeting featured a Question Box session. Leonard G. Nystrom, Chairman of the High School-College Relations Committee reported on the seven pilot meetings held throughout the state to develop better understanding of mutual problems between high school and college administrators.

Preliminary to but in conjunction with the Convention, a Workshop on Punched Card Machines was held on the San Antonio College campus. Thirty-nine registrars and admissions officers participated under the direction of Ramon A. Vitulli, Registrar, University of Houston.

The final business session included an address by E. J. Matthews, Dean of Admissions Emeritus, University of Texas, who spoke on "Memories of the Registrar's Office."

The following officers were elected for 1957-1958:

President: Perrin C. Smith, Austin College  
Vice-President: Mrs. Nadyne B. Bowen, The University of Texas Dental  
School  
Secretary: Ramon A. Vitulli, University of Houston

#### UTAH ACRAO

Brigham Young University in Provo was host to the Utah Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers on October 12, 1957.

The program included reports on the national meeting and on the recent Utah Conference on Higher Education. The 1958 meeting will be held at Carbon College in Price, Utah.

The new officers of the Association are:

President: Asa L. Beecher, Utah State University  
Vice-President: Sister Mary Bethania, St. Mary-of-the-Wasatch  
Secretary: Joseph A. Norton, University of Utah

## VIRGINIA ACRAO

The Virginia Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held its annual meeting in the Richmond Professional Institute in Richmond on October 21, 1957. The President of the Association, Marguerite Carter, presided.

The program included an address, "The Regional Association and its Place in the National Association," by Roy Armstrong, President of AACRAO. The morning session included a panel on "Admissions Standards or Policies."

The afternoon session included a report of the Denver meeting, a "Newcomer's Impression of a National Meeting," and a Question Box period.

The new officers of the Virginia ACRAO are:

President: Rex Tillotson, Lynchburg College, Lynchburg

Vice-President: Margaret Eldridge, Hollins College, Hollins

Secretary-Treasurer: Edgar Bingham, Emory and Henry College, Emory

## WISCONSIN ACRAO

The Wisconsin Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held their annual meeting on October 18, 1957, at the University of Wisconsin in Madison. The morning session included several presentations: Kenneth Little, Vice President for Student Affairs at the University of Wisconsin, spoke on the Activities of the Joint Staff of the Co-ordinating Committee for Higher Education; Joseph Lins, Associate Registrar, University of Wisconsin, reported on the national AACRAO meeting held in Denver, and also on enrollments in Wisconsin State Colleges; and Paul Trump, Registrar, University of Wisconsin, reported on the Wisconsin Joint Council on High School-College Relations. Members approved the recommendation of the Wisconsin Joint Council on High School-College Relations concerning the revised Experimental Forms of the Secondary School Record as developed by NASSP and AACRAO.

The afternoon session was divided into two Group Meetings. Group A (Public Colleges and Universities) was chaired by Frank Belisle, Stout State College; Dorothy Draheim was chairman of Group B (Private Colleges and Universities).

Future plans for the Wisconsin ACRAO include:

1. Drawing up a constitution for the State Association.
2. Study of the desirability of organizing a regional association of several states.

At the business meeting the following officers were elected:

President: L. O. Tetzlaff, Wisconsin State College, Oshkosh

Secretary-Treasurer: Sister M. Dolorita, F.S.P.A., Viterbo College, LaCrosse

## Correspondence

*An open letter to the Editor*

COPY

The Honorable Devereux C. Josephs, Chairman  
The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School  
c/o New York Life Insurance Co.  
51 Madison Avenue  
New York, New York

DEAR SIR:

The Committee's Second Report to the President dated July 22, 1957 is an excellent one. There were evidently some experienced and discerning members on The Committee. It's a good job.

It is all the more surprising to find that The Committee did not see fit to insert a paragraph of praise for the staff of the United States Office of Education. This paragraph properly belongs between the statement on the paucity of funds, page 15, and the paragraph reporting the Committee's findings on the same page.

If ever a government agency deserves credit, it is when it makes improvements, despite a lack of funds. And this the Office of Education has done.

And may I suggest that a paragraph or two following the above might be inserted indicating the results of The Office's poverty? There is very little secretarial help. Entirely too many professional men have to do their own typing—a tragic and expensive economic waste. Three to four days to get a mimeograph or ditto copy is normal. Working conditions are crowded. Office equipment is antiquated and insufficient. Punched card equipment is available only if another department does not have a higher priority. (Guess who is low man on *that* totem pole!)

Lack of information? Of course! What else can be expected? Years and years of neglect, of frustration, of poverty. It's a miracle anything has been collected, much less published. The Committee found what we the people have paid for.

One of the things I hoped your Committee could accomplish was to convince the Administration and the Congress that the U. S. Office of Education deserves better treatment. We cannot expect to secure data such as Departments of Commerce, or Labor issue—on an unrealistic budget. The Committee has reported the fact of the Office's poverty—and its resultant comparative poverty of results. Good! Let's correct it.

But let's also report the fact of a successful endeavor to improve. Let's give credit for the attempt to do a good job, almost *all* the time against discouraging odds and often even indifference.

A wide public and the professional magazines should have these things called to their attention. We owe considerable to the veterans and the

newer officials in Washington who have tried and tried and tried to get the facts for us. It must have been discouraging.

Therefore, I am taking the privilege of sending a copy of this letter to the Editors of the *New York Times*, *The Herald Tribune*, *College and University*, and *College and University Business* for the following reasons:

1. The President's Committee has made an excellent start.
2. The United States Office of Education has made progress against discouraging budgets—and deserves praise for that achievement.
3. I am acquainted with at least the published facts.

We also feel that a wider audience should know about the Second Report to the President, with the hope that the President's Committee may be strengthened and supported in its activities.

Sincerely yours,

HARVEY SHERER  
Office of Vice President  
Business Administration  
University of Kentucky  
Lexington, Kentucky

## Placement Service

AACRAO maintains a Placement Service, which serves as a clearing house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The service is under the direction of J. Everett Long, West Virginia University, Morgantown. There is no charge for listing.

There is a fee of \$3.00, however, for those who wish to publish a notice on this page. They should send with their application for listing, copy for the advertisements (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For insertions beyond the first, the charge is \$1.00 an issue. Remittance in full in favor of the AACRAO should accompany the application.

Correspondence, applications for listing, and inquiries about advertisements should be directed to Mr. Long. Requisitions and purchase orders should be directed to the AACRAO, in care of Mr. Long.

Neither the Association nor its Committee is an employment agency, and neither assumes any obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering advertisements.

**POSITION SOUGHT** in Admissions Office. M.Ed. in Guidance, Advanced Professional Certificate in Admin. of Higher Ed. Fourteen years educational experience, last five as Director of Public Relations. Male, 43 yrs. old, married, three children. Résumé, references. Address: Rt. 1, Box 145B, Lexington Park, Maryland; or Placement Service, COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY. (1/1)

**POSITION SOUGHT** as Dean of Admissions and/or Records or as Registrar. Ed.D. in Higher Education, including administration and personnel work; 11 years college and university teaching experience and one year as acting director of admissions of a state teachers college; age 40; married; present annual salary \$8,000. Address EV, Placement Service, COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY. (1/1)



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